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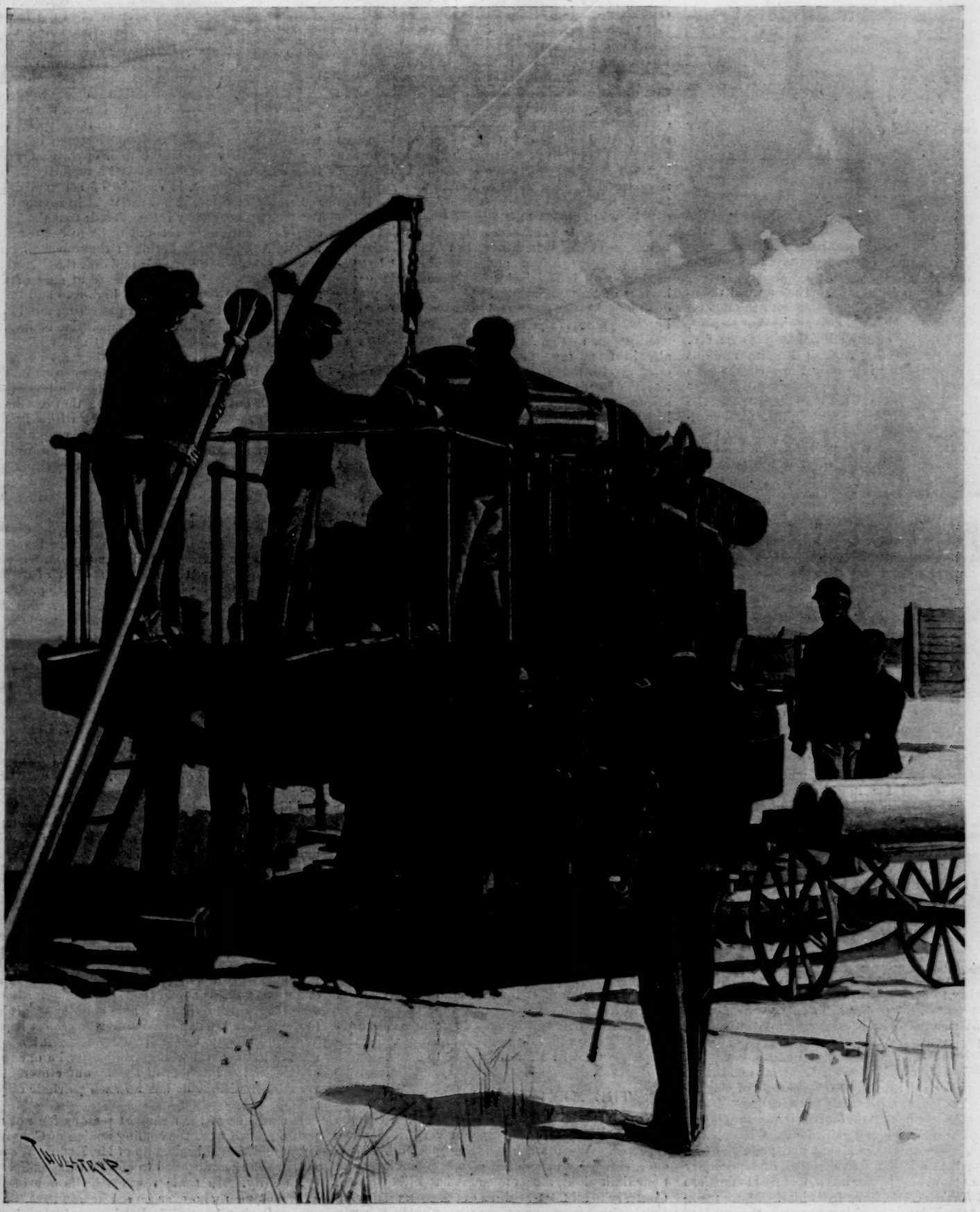

LOADING 10-INCH RIFLE MOUNTED ON BARBETTE CARRIAGE AT THE SANDY HOOK PROVING-GROUNDS.

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(TWENTY-FOUR PAGES.)

NEW YORK CITY, NOVEMBER 30, 1895.

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TURKEY.

NO intelligent man can study the history of the Turkish Empire without being struck by the fact that as soon as the Turks ceased to be conquerors, and to live upon the booty won and upon the tribute wrung from subjugated peoples, their power began to decay and crumble. They proved themselves utterly unable to keep pace with the mental progress and the industrial development of Europe, and wholly devoid of any administrative capacity. The population of the Turkish Empire remains divided substantially into only three classes—the officers and employés of the government, military and civil; the merchants, large and small; and the agriculturists—with a slight sprinkling of handicraftsmen. The civil officers, excepting the highest, have always been very poorly salaried, having to eke out their living by corrupt practices and extortions. The administration is so rotten that a large part of the heavy taxes levied never reaches the government, and that a large part of the money actually turned in is never applied to public purposes. The Mussulmans, the ruling class, have remained ruthless fanatics of their religious faith, never sincerely believing that the "infidel dogs" were entitled to any rights at all, and the many millions of Christians living under the Turkish sceptre have always been the victims of more or less cruel and rapacious oppression. So it has been since the beginning of the Turkish Empire, and so it is now.

The "Armenian massacres," which at present are arousing the indignation of all Christendom, are therefore only a returning outbreak of a chronic condition, differing perhaps from former outbreaks in degree, but not in kind. Similar occurrences—the "Bulgarian atrocities" are well remembered by the present generation—have repeatedly called for interference by European powers. On such occasions the Sultan would always promise thorough reforms, but the promises have uniformly remained unfulfilled. The Treaty of Berlin, which followed the Turco-Russian war of 1877–8, contained solemn engagements on the part of the Sublime Porte to protect the Armenians against the Kurds and the Circassians, and to guarantee to all religions equal freedom, opening to all Turkish subjects, irrespective of belief, access to public office. What has become of these engagements the world knows. It is true there is among the Moslems themselves a progressive element endeavoring to accomplish a thorough reform of the government of the empire. Twenty years ago this element succeeded in bringing about the calling of a parliamentary assembly with a view to the establishment of representative institutions. But this project did not survive the first trial, and things quickly relapsed into their former state of stagnation and rottenness. Recently the so-called "Young Turkish" party has set on foot a vigorous agitation for similar purposes, and gained a considerable following. The most prominent and popular of its leaders, IZZED Pasha, was arrested and promptly died in prison—as rumor has it, tortured to death to extort further confessions from him. Many members of the Young Turkish party were thrown into dungeons, and, as the cable reported, fifty, who had taken part in the Armenian insurrection, put in sacks and drowned in the Bosporus. The police is hotly after the rest, who still continue the agitation. There can hardly be any divergence of opinion as to Turkish rule being in this age of progressive civilization simply an outrageous anachronism and an unmitigated nuisance.

Nor would there be much serious scruple in any quarter as to the forcible ejection of the Turks from European soil, did not the question what to do with the pieces of their shattered empire arouse fierce jealousies. The two parties most interested are Russia and England—Russia, whose traditional policy it has been ever since PETER the Great to get possession of Constantinople, and thus to win absolute control of eastern Europe and of the larger part, if not the whole, of Asia; and England, who for that very reason will not permit Constantinople to fall into Russian hands, but will do all she can to protect the avenues to India. This we have always to keep in mind when judging of the attitude of Russia and England in Oriental politics. Whenever Russia takes steps for the protection of the Christian subjects of the Sultan, which she claims to be her especial duty and privilege, we may be assured that she is not actuated by purely humanitarian motives—which it would be difficult to attribute to her government after the cruel persecution of her own Jewish subjects—but that she has the disintegration of the Turkish Empire in view, opening to her the road to Constantinople. It has repeatedly been found that when disturbances broke out between Moslems and Christians in the Turkish Empire, they were fomented by Russian agents and Russian money in order to strengthen the call for foreign interference. And while there can be no doubt as to the cruel treatment of the Armenians by the Turks, it is equally beyond doubt that some of the disturbances have been instigated by Armenian agitators, and it would not be surprising at all if Russian rubles were found at the bottom of those agitations. This is by no means disproved by the recent admonition administered by M. NELIDOFF, the Russian ambassador at Constantinople, to the Armenians, advising them to abstain from revolutionary schemes, and to cooperate with the Turkish government in the restoration of order; for that admonition came only after the revolutionary attempts of the Armenians had become too evident. The real spirit and hope of Russia appears in the recent somewhat unguarded utterance of the *Novoe Vremya*, the leading Russian journal: "We are glad to observe that Englishmen are becoming accustomed to the not distant prospect of Russia occupying Constantinople, for that must be the ultimate issue of the Eastern question."

If the Russians count upon England ever agreeing to a Russian occupation of Constantinople they will be grievously disappointed. English sympathy with the oppressed Armenians may be ever so sincere, and Englishmen may be ever so anxious to force upon the Sultan a reform policy putting an end to the troubles, yet according to her traditional policy and her conception of her vital interests in the Orient, England will much rather with her whole power maintain the existence of the Turkish Empire than permit Russia to set her foot into Constantinople. Or, if the Turkish Empire must go to pieces—and it looks, indeed, as if the rotten structure could not hold together very much longer—England will fight to the last before submitting to any arrangement putting Constantinople into Russian hands. Nor would in such an event England be without allies. Austria, dreading the close grasp of the Russian giant, would surely be on her side; and Italy, jealous of her power in the Mediterranean, would most probably join the coalition. Germany might be loath to give up her Russian friendship, but if she remained neutral—which perhaps she might if France remained neutral too—her neutrality would hardly be without sympathy for the other two members of the Dreibund. In any event, however desirable the disappearance of Turkey from the map of Europe may be, the struggle about the remains would threaten to become one of the most formidable conflicts the Old World has ever seen. It may now be postponed once more by new promises of reform on the part of the Sultan and by a general dread of the catastrophe, but it will ultimately have to come.

THE MEETING OF CONGRESS.

THERE is a good deal to be hoped for from the coming session of Congress, and very little to be expected. We are a hopeful people, and experience, especially experience of our politicians and their limitations, seems to count but little with us. Contrary to all the teachings of the past, many sanguine citizens are wont, as each first Monday in December comes to pass, to regard the ceremonies at the opening of the legislative branch of the government as the first events of a momentous winter, only to be disappointed by the old familiar round of senseless struggle and vociferous failure that ought to have been confidently anticipated.

The first Monday in December is now upon us, and once more the newspapers are discussing the problems that Congress ought to take up and solve. The Republicans are in control of the House of Representatives by a majority of more than a hundred. They have made the country ring with the charge that the Democrats are incompetent lawgivers, and they have much proof of the soundness of the postulate. There was never a more incompetent Congress at Washington, except, perhaps, that which sat before it and the one which preceded that. Republican as well as Democratic majorities are chargeable with the sins of commission and omission that have brought about the present condition of our finances, the blame for which rests very lightly, if at all, upon the Executive Department of the government. But the Republicans believe, or say that they believe, that they are at last back in power because the Democrats are responsible for lessened revenues, increased expenditures, a disordered currency, and a distressed Treasury. Whether or not this is so does not matter. The Republicans in asserting it recognize the existence of evils, and insist that they are in power in order to remedy them. Of course, if they do not remedy them, they can be truthfully charged with the grossest kind of incompetence; but it is hoped that they will rise to their opportunity, and that they will show that at last a majority in the American Congress is capable of accomplishing something of value. They are right in saying that the country's currency is disordered; that the Treasury is in danger on account of its forced connection with the banking business; that our monetary system should be reformed; and that the Secretary of the Treasury should be relieved at once of the necessity of selling any more high-rate and long-time bonds for the purpose of protecting a gold reserve that he ought not to be compelled to maintain.

Will the Republican leaders set about the task which is before them? Will they set about it intelligently, and with the single purpose of doing what is best for the country? We hope that they will, but we frankly confess that we have not much reason to expect that they will. In the first place, they have apparently no programme; and in the second place, they have a strong desire to make party capital out of the situation. Most of the business men of the country are strongly opposed to a reopening of the tariff question; but the politicians, who are bent upon making what they consider to be the points of the game, are insisting that the tariff shall be the issue of the coming Presidential campaign, and, presumably therefore, the central subject of discussion in Congress during the coming session. They say that the lack of revenue demands more taxes, whereas, as we have stated elsewhere, we believe that the present taxes will eventually produce more than enough to meet the government's expenses.

The constant reference to the importance of the tariff question by Republican Senators and Representatives, in interviews and speeches, is not a sign that the coming session will be carried on for the general welfare. On the contrary, it is a clear indication that the Republican leaders are intending to play the game of politics for all that it is worth to them and their organization. Not a word has been heard that induces the belief that Mr. REED and his immediate friends have agreed upon a plan for the relief of the Treasury. Such a plan should have been agreed to, and if it had been it might be put through the House at least before the Christmas holidays. The country is familiar with Mr. REED'S methods, and has had a taste of his ability to control absolutely the majority that makes him Speaker. It is not much more than five years ago that he lashed through the House a tariff bill manufactured by its beneficiaries, and if he could then do that for a socialistic measure, why can he not now, when his majority is so much larger and doubtless not less subservient, put through a measure that will benefit the whole country by giving to the Treasury the needed power to protect itself? We would like to believe that Mr. REED intends to use for the general welfare the power he once exercised in the interests of the manufacturers, but we are afraid that he has no such patriotic disposition.

Indeed, one of the strongest reasons for not expecting much from the coming session of Congress is the undisputed leadership of Mr. REED. We are not in the least disposed to question the ex-Speaker's ability. In some respects he is one of the strongest men who ever served in Congress. But after all that is possible has been said in his favor, what has he accomplished for the country, and why is it that he has been raised to the leadership of the Republican side of the House of Representatives? Mr. REED'S efforts have been almost

entirely in behalf of his party. He has been and is a passionate, bitter, and sometimes an ill-regulated partisan. More than once he has sacrificed what he knew to be the interests of the country in behalf of his partisan or personal schemes. A notable instance of that occurred last winter, when Mr. REED encouraged the Republicans to vote against the administration's resolution providing that the bonds to be sold to the syndicate should be gold bonds. The passage of this bill would have saved the country $16,000,000, but the Democratic administration would have gained the credit. On this occasion Mr. REED is reported to have said to Congressmen of his own political faith that "he knew no reason why any Republican should vote for the resolution." In consequence of this the resolution was defeated, although Mr. REED himself voted for it.

When he was Speaker he helped Mr. MCKINLEY to achieve the bill which bore his name, and which so exasperated the country that at the next election the party that was responsible for it lost the House, the Democrats carrying the country by enormous majorities. As we have already said, that bill was made by its beneficiaries, and Mr. REED rushed it through, not permitting even some of his fellow-partisans to offer the amendments they desired to have incorporated in the measure.

He was also a most unreasonable advocate of a force bill, and materially aided the passage through the House of a measure that would have deprived the Southern people, and perhaps the Northern people, of the control of the election machinery in their own localities. On the currency question he has been unsettled, with a tendency towards silver, and it would be difficult to point to an occasion in his public career when he has responded to a call of the country to rise above party. His leadership is therefore not an encouraging sign that Congress will realize the hopes of the country, for it is not a factitious or unreal leadership. Mr. REED is, by reason of superior ability and extreme partisanship, the first Republican in Congress.

REPUBLICAN COMPLAINTS OF PLATT.

SOME of the Republicans of New York are saying a good deal, now that the election is over, about the wickedness of PLATT and LAUTERBACH, and are deploring their control of the New York county organization. It is to be hoped that something more than talk will come out of the undoubted disgust that is felt by decent Republicans because of PLATT's supremacy, for there is no reason why PLATT should retain the leadership of the party if the party does not desire him as its chief.

The whole country is interested in this situation, and it would be a step towards the regeneration of politics if PLATT could be overthrown. If he be not deprived of his primacy in the State before next spring, he will be one of the effective powers in the Republican National Convention, and it is thoroughly well understood that his influence will be exerted in behalf of that which is evil, and that if his influence is potent the outcome of the convention will not be what it ought to be, and what it may be if such men as PLATT and QUAY do not control its deliberations. As matters stand, these two worthies seem to be inclined to come together; but while it is not at all certain that they can carry the convention for any favorite on whom they may unite, such leaders, and especially such leaders acting in harmony and apparently sustained by their party, will not be to the advantage of the Republicans in the next campaign, especially if the Democrats take the people of Maryland and New York at their word and displace GORMAN and HILL.

We confess that we have some misgivings. Republican leaders and newspapers have before this complained of these "bosses," only to sustain them after they have carried the primaries and the conventions. Indeed, it may be said to have become the fashion in Pennsylvania for Republican newspapers to denounce QUAY before a convention, and afterward to eulogize him for the "magnificent generalship" which he has manifested in compassing the defeat of his opponents. There is only one way in which to make effective war on a "boss" who, like PLATT or QUAY, has absolute control of the State or the local machine. The "boss" must not be permitted to carry elections. He must be treated as the decent Democrats of New York and Maryland have treated HILL and GORMAN. If the Republican party machine of New York is in the hands of PLATT, no Republican can support that machine and remain a good citizen, unless his support, as in the war against HILL, is the expression of a choice of evils. But it is not necessary that the voter's choice should come to that, for there is always an opportunity for independent action, and of such an opportunity many Democrats have lately taken advantage, with the result of administering a punishment to their party "bosses" that is no less deserved by the "bosses" of the Republican party.

We are the more moved to doubt the sincerity of Republican complaints of PLATT because of the conduct of Republicans in this city in the recent municipal campaign. An alliance with PLATT was not desirable, but it was compelled by Republicans who are now complaining of his use of the power which he holds. It would have been well if PLATT had been forced to stand up and be counted; but after he had captured the Republican county convention, the leading men of that faction of the Republican party which is supposed to be hostile to PLATT, and to his ways and his morals, refused to make an alliance with other good citizens, including the Democrats who had shown the sincerity of their professions in behalf of good government by making open war on Tammany. When Republican politicians cease to show the almost servile regard for regularity that was at the bottom of this refusal we shall be ready to believe that they are prepared to make earnest and effective war on PLATT. Until then it will be the part of wisdom to doubt inter-election growls and complaints. In order to purify the Republican party of this State there needs to be some vigorous and sturdy fighting within the party, not only at the primaries and the conventions, but, if necessary, at the polls. Let Republicans reflect on what might have happened by this time if Mr. BROOKFIELD, Mr. MCCOOK, and their associates had declined to recognize PLATT's county convention, and, without regard to it or PLATT or LAUTERBACH, had left the machine to its own devices, and had joined with other citizens in a war against Tammany, to endure as long as Tammany might remain a threat to good government.

THE VENEZUELANS AND THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

THE dispute between Venezuela and Great Britain is likely to continue to be very interesting to the people of the United States. Strong efforts are being made, and will continue to be made, to involve this country in a contention with Great Britain, but under no circumstances ought the United States to take the ground that the MONROE doctrine is applicable. Great Britain, however, owes it to this country, and to that sense of justice and fair dealing which ought to govern a strong power in its relations with a weaker one, to submit this question to arbitration.

Mr. RICHARD HARDING DAVIS, in a very interesting article on Venezuela, published in HARPER'S MAGAZINE for December, gives us the Venezuelan idea of the MONROE doctrine. It appears that our neighbors have been misled. It is the Venezuelan belief that, however a republic may treat a foreign power, the United States is at its beck and call, and is bound, under the MONROE doctrine, to sustain it with force of arms. The Venezuelans will find themselves sadly mistaken if they base any action whatever upon this construction of the doctrine. There has long been reason to suspect that the outcries and follies of our own jingoes would create unreasonable hope in the countries that would most naturally be the beneficiaries of an enforcement of the MONROE doctrine. The expectations of the Nicaraguans in their recent contest with England was proof of this, and now we learn from Mr. DAVIS that the Venezuelans also believe that the United States will come to their assistance in their controversy with England, no matter what may be the merits of that controversy. The sooner the Venezuelan mind is disabused of this error, the more judicious will be its final treatment of the controversy.

EFFORTS FOR MUNICIPAL REFORM.

THE desire for municipal reform is spreading, and it is sincerely to be hoped that the result of the recent election in this city will not discourage the friends of good government from persevering in their efforts to reach a sound solution of one of the most vexing problems that is presented by our democratic form of government.

It is our present purpose merely to chronicle two movements that are indicative of the general trend in the right direction. Philadelphia has long been recognized as one of the worst-governed cities in the country. More than fifteen years ago the reformers, under the lead of a committee of citizens, defeated a ring of plunderers who had established themselves as a great wealth-getting corporation, making money from nearly every public instrumentality for the corporate health and comfort. But new devices for robbery have been invented, and on the 11th of this month a State Senate investigation was begun into the abuses that have flourished under the present charter of the city. How great a sum these abuses have cost the tax-payer may be judged from a statement made by Mr. FREEDLEY, a lawyer, who explained the purpose and scope of the investigation. He said: "On January 1, 1887, the annual cost of the various departments was under $9,000,000. On January 1, 1895, the annual cost was over $29,000,000." The work of the Highway and Street-cleaning bureaus of Philadelphia is done by contract, and the charge is made that the money expended by these bureaus is not employed for the benefit of the city, but is diverted to political purposes. The city does not get the benefit of the money; the "heelers," the "strikers," the "boys," do. This is an old story in more than one American city, and we are told that the evils of the contract system are likely to be fully exposed by the investigation. It seems that under no system are the interests of the city safe from the plunderers. Whether the work is done by the city officials or by contractors employed by them, advantage is taken of every opportunity for stealing or diverting municipal revenues.

The other effort for municipal reform is being made in New Orleans. Affairs in that city seem to have reached the lowest depth of political degradation. Serious criminal charges are made against men who are in high position, and the implicated officials appear to have banded together to persecute those who are charged with the duty of bringing them to justice. The character of the government of New Orleans may be judged from the statement that is made by the *Picayune* that the "corrupt and conscienceless political bosses have so managed the city's affairs that numbers of the people's representatives have become criminals, convicted of felonies, and others are charged with criminal corruption, while the good name of the city has been covered with shame and disgrace."

A war against this state of things has been going on for some time, but now public sentiment has been concentrated by the formation of a Citizens' League, at a meeting which was held on the 8th of this month, at the Chamber of Commerce and Industry. It is the intention of the league to make war on the corrupt "bosses" at the polls.

All such movements as these make for the moral health of the whole country, and if they are persisted in, their result will be the reform of most of our municipal governments.

SURPLUS AND DEFICIT LEGISLATION.

IT is a truism to assert that the Congress about to assemble has grave, very grave, financial responsibilities. The same has been truly said of every Congress since 1865, when the fiscal policy created by a condition of war should have given place to one demanded by peace. The one was temporary; the other should be permanent. Both political parties have been at fault, and even the responsibility for the greatest blunders is to be shared by each. The juggle with the "greenback" has imposed upon the country a form of currency which embodies everything that is vicious. The "compromise" with silver has brought the Treasury within sight of dishonoring its obligations. A reduction of revenues and an unprecedented increase in expenditures have compelled a resort to faulty expedients that merely postpone the day of settlement, while increasing the burdens to be finally met.

This Congress, then, has an opportunity to repair some of the mistakes of its predecessors, though not to make good their heavy cost to the people. A surplus revenue was thought a good thing; but a surplus invited legislation which has more thoroughly corrupted the sources of political power than any one policy, outside of direct bribery, could have done. The inability of Congress to deal rationally with the surplus was due to a desire to purchase party advantage, and that is the last of all means for obtaining permanence of system and a just distribution of burdens. The once bought must be bought again, and at a rising price. The effects of these years of excessive and unnecessary expenditures remained, and even now there are some in authority who speak regretfully of those years of "prosperity," when in reality the prosperity was confined to the favored few, and was at the expense of the many. A destruction of revenue and another increase of expenditure brought the government face to face with a deficit in 1893; and since that time a want of income, coupled with a monetary distrust, has at once proved the errors of existing legislation and pointed out the only road to safety.

Over-haste in wiping out the surplus led to a stringency, and indications point to an over-haste in covering the possible deficit now anticipated. Since July the government has been called upon to spend twenty million dollars more than it has received. The first six months of the fiscal year are the lean months of revenue, but from January to July the yield is greater. With the highest returns probable, the deficit can be covered only by limiting the expenses of government to what is absolutely necessary. A lavish Congress may continue a large deficit. As the time for the assembling of that body approaches, the general scheme of what is to be done is developed, but on such lines as to give little encouragement to hope for a real betterment of the finances. Higher internal and tariff taxes constitute the plan of the majority party. Some measure of that description is likely to pass, even though it be known that the President will veto it. The industry of manufacturing party capital is to continue.

The plan is a bad one. No one denies that the government should have a revenue sufficient to meet its necessary expenditures. No one will deny that experience proves that revenues, whether from internal or customs taxation, tend to increase by the mere weight of population and the growth of wealth. The margin between revenue and expenditure is now so narrow that another year under the existing laws should cover it and again give the Treasury a small surplus. Why, then, impose new taxes? All that is needed is some means, readily applied, for meeting a temporary deficit. The Treasury is not in the position of an individual. It has no assets on which it can raise a short-term loan. A large property-holder, it cannot pledge a building, a plot of land, a ship, or any form of its property. Nor can it pay interest for a temporary loan, because there is no law making provision for such interest. On one occasion Treasurer JORDAN exchanged with the banks six millions of fractional coin for a like sum in gold, the silver being in fact worth, in bullion, only four millions. But such a transaction was exceptional, and could not now be repeated. It emphasizes, however, the powerlessness of the government to meet a contingency by any other means than the existing laws permit—the sale of long-time bonds at comparatively high rates of interest. The power to negotiate a temporary loan when needed is not capable of abuse, for publicity controls every operation of the Treasury. So long as there is a surplus the power will not be used, and when a deficit impends it offers a ready instrument of checking the usual concomitant of a deficit, financial unrest and business disturbance. This is a matter which takes precedence of any scheme for increase in taxes, for it will bring us one step nearer a rational and permanent system of government finance.

CALVERT VAUX.

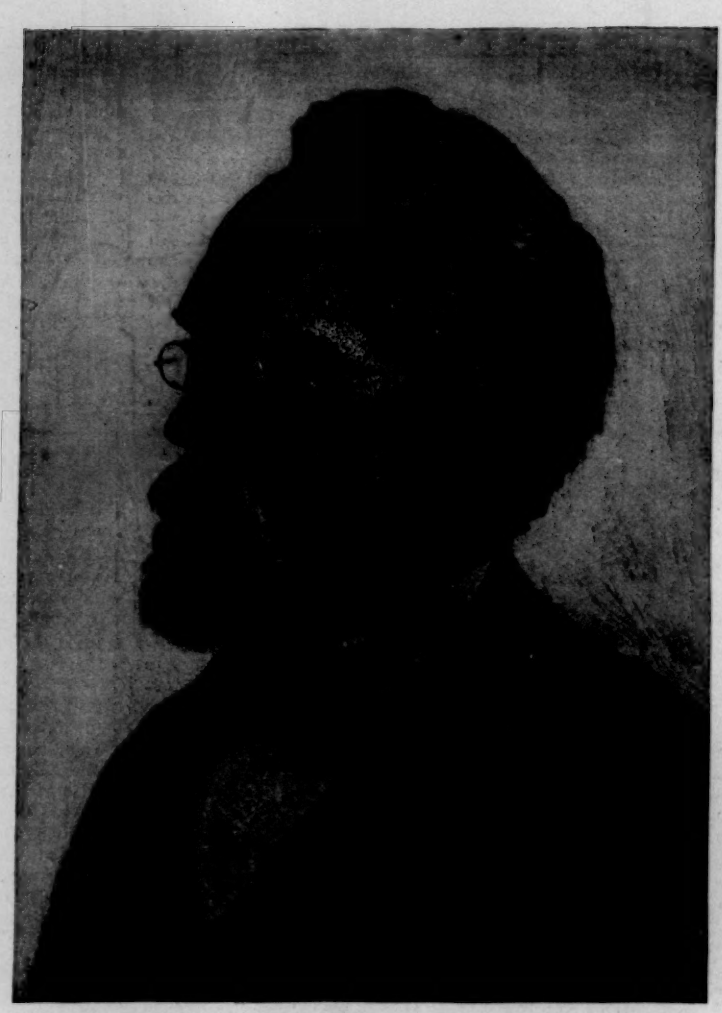
THE death of Mr. Vaux removes from the service of the city of New York the resident of it whose counsel and whose superintendence have been most valuable in projecting its new pleasure-grounds and pleasure-drives, and in the not less important work of defending the old. That work, unfortunately, has needed to be defended in opposition to benevolent as well as to malicious despoilers, and on several occasions it has been enabled to be performed only by the authority and influence of the consulting landscape architect of the Department of Parks.

Mr. Vaux was born in London, December 20, 1824, and received his general education at the famous Merchant Taylors' School, and his professional education in the office of Lewis N. Cottingham. In 1848 he came to the United States, and almost at once became the partner of Andrew Jackson Downing, of Newburgh, the father of landscape-gardening in this country, whose works, by stimulating the creation of tasteful rural or suburban "places," have been of a benefit quite incalculable. The conjunction was in every way fortunate, for Mr. Downing lacked the systematic architectural training which his new partner supplied, while Mr. Vaux's own tendencies and talents were in the direction of the irregular, the picturesque, and the rural, and the clientage and the line of work of his new employment suited them to perfection. For some years his work was the design of the houses for the "places" his partner was employed to create, while he afterwards entered into a purely architectural partnership with Mr. Withers, also an Englishman by birth.

The work of the first decade of Mr. Vaux's career is summarized in the illustrations to his book, *Villas and Cottages*, published by Harper & Brothers, 1857, which appealed to the same class of readers with the books of Mr. Downing, published many years earlier, and sufficiently shows the advantage which the amateur designer had derived from his association with the professional.

Somewhat later than this period is the one surviving example in New York of Mr. Vaux's commercial architecture—the Bank of New York, at the corner of Wall and William streets, to which a story has been added since the introduction of the elevator, but which is otherwise as it was originally designed.

A more congenial task invited him in the creation of the Central Park. Mr. Vaux associated himself with Mr. Olmsted in preparing a plan for the competition which he himself had suggested. The plan, as everybody knows, was successful, and the park as it stands is in all essentials the execution of it. Mr. Vaux had especial charge of the architecture of the Park, and exercised a controlling supervision over it, although the actual designer of many



CALVERT VAUX.

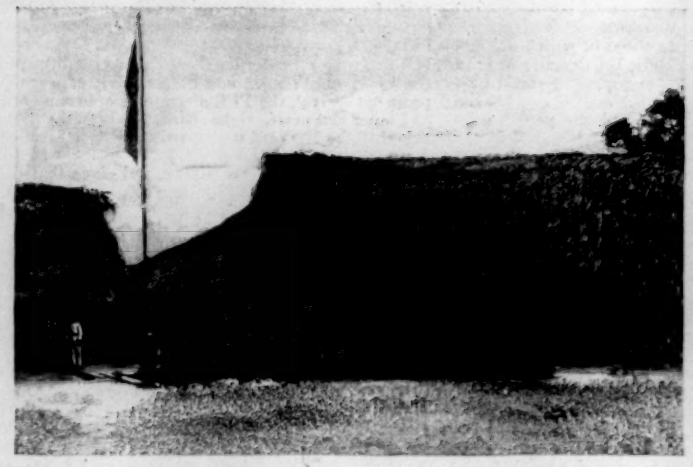
of the structures of the Park was the late Wrey Mould. Mr. Vaux, however, was individually the designer of the boat-houses, the Casino, apparently the controlling designer of the first buildings of the Museum of Art and the Museum of Natural History, and of the belvedere at the lower end of the reservoir, which in picturesqueness and vigor is easily the most successful of his works in that kind. In all his own work for the Park the sylvan notion was uppermost, and he was always a persistent and generally a successful stickler for the ruralities against all comers, even to the extent of successfully opposing the designs for formal and monumental entrances.

Among the other works of the firm of Vaux & Olmsted were the parks, or, rather, the park systems, of Buffalo and of Chicago, the State Reservation at Niagara, and the Riverside and Morningside parks in New York. In the controversy that arose when the Harlem River Driveway was authorized, between the men who desired that it should be merely and exclusively a trotting-track and the men who desired that advantage should also be taken of the unequalled facilities it afforded for a river-side promenade, Mr. Vaux was the defender of the latter view. It was his championship that made it prevail at last, though not until grievous and irreparable mutilations of the appropriate plan had been inflicted. The Park Commissioners of the time, desiring to secure some semblance of professional sanction for vandalism, had invoked the services of Mr. Olmsted, who, with characteristic loyalty, declined to render them except in conjunction with his former partner, and upon Mr. Vaux's application. The death of Mr. Vaux removes one of the chief bulwarks of the parks against the invasions of malice or of ignorance, and imposes a larger share of responsibility upon their official custodians.

Mr. Vaux's labors for the past thirty years as a creator, improver, and defender of parks have naturally, in a great degree, withdrawn him from the practice of his original profession, except in so far as this practice was incidentally involved in his landscape architecture. Before the creation of Central Park he had been associated with Mr. Downing in the laying out of the grounds of the Capitol and of the Smithsonian Institution at Washington.

About twenty years ago he was employed as the architect of a model tenement-house, or rather of a model tenement house block, covering the space between two streets in upper First Avenue. His most important essays, however, in street architecture during the latter years of his life have been in various buildings, schools or lodging-houses, or a combination of the two, which he has designed as the architect of the Children's Aid Society. There must be a dozen or more of these edifices scattered about the city, and any one of them is readily recognizable by its family resemblance to the others, though each has a physiognomy of its own, and is an individual design. They are rather irregular and highly picturesque in treatment, but these qualities serve to denote their exceptional purposes, which are very well expressed in arrangement and in detail, and it is always pleasant to come upon them. They probably constitute the designer's most successful effort in architecture which is the principal objects of design and not incidental and accessory.

THANKSGIVING MORNING IN A PARIS ART SCHOOL—A NOUVEAU'S TREAT.—DRAWN BY VICTOR PERARD.—[SEE PAGE 1145.]

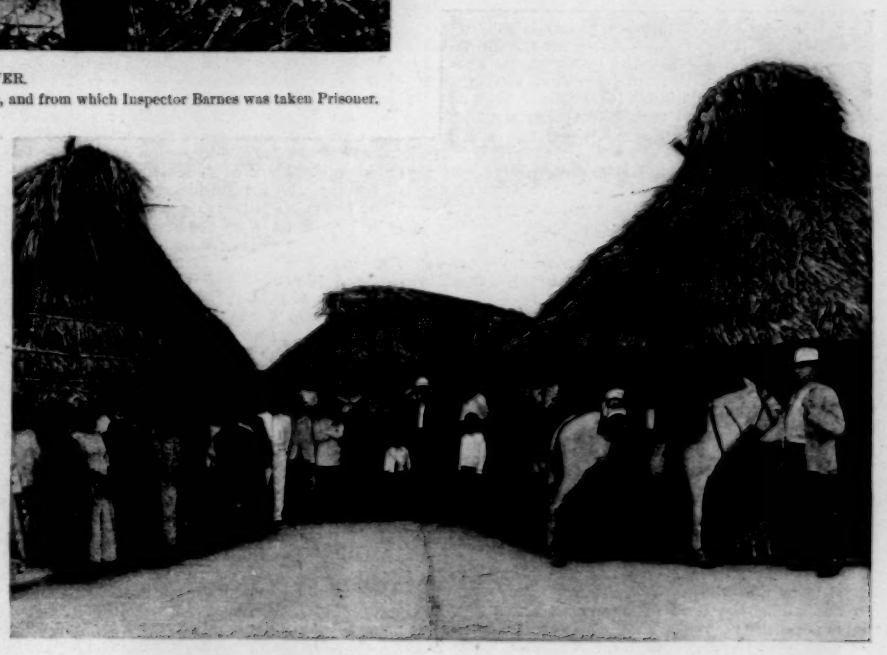


VENEZUELAN STATION ON THE CUYUNI RIVER.
The Barracks and House in which the English Police were confined.

ENGLISH STATION ON THE CUYUNI RIVER.
Inspector Barnes, Chief of the English Police who were captured by the Venezuelan Troops, is seated on the Steps.

THE CUYUNI RIVER.
With View of the English Station that was sacked by Venezuelan Troops, and from which Inspector Barnes was taken Prisoner.

NATIVES ON THE CUYUNI RIVER.



ARRIVAL OF A VENEZUELAN EXPEDITION AT SAN JOAQUIN, VENEZUELAN GUIANA.

THE VENEZUELAN TROUBLES.

When Nelson was fighting Spain, France, and Holland, and lost an arm, though he beat them all—that was in 1797—there fell as spoil to Great Britain the territory of Guiana, which had belonged to the Dutch. It is not unnatural to suppose that nearly a century ago it was a difficult task to determine what were exactly the lines between any Spanish or Dutch provinces in South America. Necessarily frontiers were vague, because of the great stretches of country which had never been explored. Encroachments must have been constant. It was a debatable land, now occupied by Spaniards, now by the Dutch.

To be perfectly honest in a discussion of the present character as to what belongs to Venezuela or what to Great Britain is, then, no easy matter. When Venezuela achieved her independence, the question of her territory does not seem to have occupied her attention, because at that time, and for many years afterwards, she was fully occupied in suppressing troubles within her own state. If discussion has arisen to-day as to what are her exact lines in the east, there is the question of territory where she touches on Colombia, which is certain in the future to bring about trouble.

That section of Venezuelan territory on which Great Britain is accused of trespassing may be deemed of little value for agricultural purposes, but it is here that gold has been discovered. As to present gold-mining in Venezuelan or British Guiana reefs, it is alluvial gold principally, and the yield precarious. The labor is entirely Indian, and not to be depended upon. Population in the disputed ground is scant: according to the last census the entire population of British Guiana was 278,295, and of Venezuela 2,075,245.

It was, then, the finding of gold which brought about the present crisis. To protect British prospectors the English authorities sent out a police force, certain members of which were captured by the Venezuelans. According to English accounts, the representatives of the Queen offered to make careful surveys. How true this may be is not known, but a leading English review prints this: that "Venezuela answered by reciting the papal bull of the sixteenth century, which divided the New World among the Catholic countries of Spain and Portugal, and, descending to details, formally laid claim to all lands to the north of the Essequibo—about one-half of the British colony."

Of course a demand of this kind on the part of Venezuela was not pleasantly received by the English colonial office. According to English accounts, then—for it is wiser to tell both sides of the discussion—Venezuela demanded of England "the evacuation of a territory which old Spain had never claimed."

The disputes as to the lines between Venezuela and British Guiana are of long date, but it is only of late that they have assumed importance. In 1890, when Mr. Lincoln represented the United States in England, certain lines drawn by an English engineer fifty years before were insisted upon by Great Britain as the true limits of her South American province. It was then that Mr. Lincoln proposed arbitration. The Venezuelans regarded these lines, known as the Schomburgk lines, as encroachments. Protests against these Schomburgk lines were made by Venezuela in 1844.

In 1881 Lord Granville urged a compromise, and in 1883 Lord Granville again proposed an amicable arrangement, and negotiations were entered into with Venezuela. It was even intimated, if the tortuous character of the diplomatic protocols can be understood, that the Schomburgk lines might not be rigorously insisted upon.

At present the condition seems to be something like this: England is ready to accept arbitration, but with a reservation, the reservation being so substantial as to include the merits of the controversy.

The illustrations show various phases in the discussion, in which main force seems to have taken the place of words.

THE RIGHT HON. GENERAL SIR HENRY PONSONBY, G.C.B.

Private Secretary and Privy Purse are two titles which convey but a very faint and inadequate idea of the importance of the offices which for the past quarter of a century have been vested in the tall and soldierly General Sir Henry Ponsonby. He was far more than these. Indeed, it is doubtful whether, with the exception of the Prince Consort himself, any one else throughout her Majesty's long and eventful reign ever enjoyed the same degree of royal confidence or exercised so potent an influence upon the sovereign. Until the day when the Queen became a widow, her husband may be said to have acted as her private secretary, and the communications which in those days she addressed to her ministers were almost invariably in his handwriting. It is unfortunate that Sir Henry did not receive the appointment of private secretary until eight years later, for it was precisely during this period following her bereavement that the Queen experienced the greatest need of sagacious counsels, of assistance in the transaction of official business, and, above all, of honest and disinterested advice with regard to the current of that public sentiment which is one of the main props of the British throne.

From the moment when Sir Henry entered upon his duties as private secretary, just twenty-five years ago, until the hour when he was laid low by a stroke of paralysis, a few weeks since, the result of fatigue and excessive strain upon the nervous system, not a single official document, confidential despatch, or even private letter, has either reached or left Queen Victoria without passing through his hands and forming the subject of discussion with her Majesty. Whenever there was a cabinet crisis, it was Sir Henry who was intrusted with the duty of conveying either to the ministers in office, or to those about to form part of the new administration, the views, the fears, and the prejudices of the Queen. This has especially been the case with Lord Salisbury and Mr. Gladstone, neither of whom can be said to be precisely *persona gratissima* at Windsor, differing therein from the late Lord Beaconsfield, who stood higher in the Queen's favor than any statesman since the days of Lord Melbourne and

SIR HENRY PONSONBY.

Sir Robert Peel. So much tact and discretion were displayed by Sir Henry in the discharge of those delicate duties that no one exactly knows what were his individual preferences with regard to the political parties.

There is not a day throughout the year, save Sunday, when the Queen does not receive, wherever she may happen to be, from all the principal government departments boxes of documents, orders, warrants, and minutes requiring the royal signature and immediate attention. All these papers first receive the attention of the Queen's private secretary, who is necessarily a member of the Privy Council, since it is indispensable that a man intrusted with so many state secrets of the gravest import should be bound by some more serious and stringent obligation to discretion than a mere personal sense of duty and honor.

Yet this only constituted a mere item of Sir Henry's multifarious duties. These may be said to have commenced in the morning shortly before ten, and involved attendance upon her Majesty until lunch-time at two. During that interval the Queen would not only consult with Sir Henry about the various official papers which he submitted to her, but would likewise discuss the management of her estates, the direction of the royal household, the administration of her fortune, and last, but by no means least, the settlement of differences among the members of the royal family. For the latter do not always get on well together. There are jealousies, dislikes, and unpleasantnesses of every kind. It was Sir Henry's duty to know all about these, to make the Queen acquainted with them according to his discretion, and to act in her behalf in numerous instances as mediator, peacemaker, or censor. It speaks well for his tact and cleverness, under the circumstances, that he should have been able to retain throughout his career not only the regard, but even the affection, of every one of the members of the Queen's family, from the oldest down to the youngest.

Then, too, a portion of each day had to be spent in seeing visitors, in communicating to them her Majesty's wishes, and in procuring from them the points of information on which she desired to be posted previous to receiving them in audience. There is many a person who on being admitted to her Majesty's presence has been astounded and flattered by the intimate knowledge which she displayed of his past history, his present condition, and his aspirations for the future, and has left the palace with a vastly increased sense of his own importance, oblivious of the fact that it was he himself who had posted Sir Henry.

Not among the least onerous and responsible of Sir Henry's duties was that of acting as dispenser of the Queen's charities. Theoretically speaking the "Mother" of her people, the latter think it incumbent upon them to call upon her for assistance whenever they are in trouble, and the demands made upon her purse are beyond all belief. To Sir Henry fell the lot of sifting the chaff from the wheat. Whenever the name of the Queen appears at the head of any subscription list, its success is generally assured.

It is greatly to the credit of Sir Henry that throughout his twenty-five years of administration of her Majesty's charities only one error should have been made, and that during his absence on leave. It was when the Queen, who is far more impulsive than she is usually given credit for being, sent a subscription to the fund being raised by Editor Stead, of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, to enable Miss Valerie Wiedmann, the *soi-disant* German governess, to continue legal proceedings against the present Earl of Orford for breach of promise. Subsequent investigation in court brought to light the fact that the action was a wholly unjustifiable piece of persecution, and the plaintiff an adventuress of questionable antecedents, and wholly unworthy of the sympathy of either the Queen or the public. But Sir Henry was fortunately by the side of the Queen when she was asked to contribute to the fund raised for the so-called unemployed a few years ago, and it was in deference to his advice, given as the result of careful inquiry, that she declined to contribute a single penny, thereby earning the gratitude of all those who were shrewd enough to perceive that the money was destined, not for the *bona fide* laboring classes and artisans, but merely for the professional paupers and idle tramps who abound in London in greater numbers than in any other capital of the world. Even still greater wariness did Sir Henry have to employ in connection with the distribution of the Queen's bounty to mothers who had given birth to triplets. Ever since the Queen ascended the throne she has been in the habit of sending a gift of money in such cases as these. But before transmitting the money, accompanied invariably by a letter in Sir Henry's own handwriting, it was incumbent upon the gallant general to assure himself of the fact that the triplets or quadruplets were not imaginary, and that the multiple births were authentic.

Another mistake made by the Queen during the annual leave of absence of Sir Henry Ponsonby was of a somewhat more amusing character than that of which she was guilty in connection with Miss Valerie Wiedmann and Lord Orford. A succession of wet seasons, accompanied by a formidable outbreak of disease, had caused great havoc among the flocks of Great Britain, and the papers were full of gloomy forebodings of a serious falling off in the number of sheep in the kingdom, news and subjects of popular interest being scarce during the early autumn and editors only too glad to exploit to the utmost any feature. The Queen, however, took these utterances of the press in all seriousness, became alarmed as to the possible disappearance of one of England's principal sources of national wealth, and, acting on the impulse of the moment, issued a mandate dated from Balmoral strictly prohibiting the eating of lamb in any of the royal establishments, with the avowed object of discouraging the practice generally, until the flocks of the United Kingdom should have recovered their former size. The panic that ensued among the agricultural classes and butchers, on this decision of the Queen becoming known, defies description. Newspapers of every shade of political opinion were crowded with complaints of farmers, showing that the sale of lambs was the most profitable part of their business, and that if they could not find a market they would have to slaughter the animals anyway in consequence of the lack of adequate pasture. In short, it was made clear that the eating of lamb had nothing to do with the diminution of the flocks, and that what the Queen had meant for kindness was in reality the most serious injury that could be inflicted upon agricultural interests. Sir Henry was summoned post-haste to Balmoral, and, in deference to his advice, the royal edict was rescinded.

And yet it was not easy to offer advice to the Queen, or, when offered, to induce her to accept it. For her character, which was always imperious and even impatient, has become doubly intolerant of all restraint and opposition toward the close of a reign of wellnigh threescore years, and though possessed of a master mind in most respects, and of an immense amount of thoroughly British commonsense, yet she is too entirely a woman not to be addicted to that altogether feminine failing of capriciousness, which renders the continuance of her good-humor and favor somewhat precarious, save in the case of so old, tried, and entirely trusted a servant as that gallant Crimean veteran, the late General Sir Henry Ponsonby.

EX-DIPLOMAT.

THIS BUSY WORLD

THE Boston papers speak with cheerful commendation of Mr. John K. Bangs's one-act farce, *The Bicyclers*, first presented by Messrs. E. M. and Joseph Holland, at the Tremont Theatre, on November 15th. Mr. E. M. Holland appeared in it as the beginner, whom we all know, and of whose trials a large proportion of us have had personal experience. Mr. Joseph Holland was the dignified man of fashion who detests bicycles, largely because his wife (Miss Laura Macgilvray) is given over to them, until finally he is induced to try one himself, when presently he goes the way of the rest of mankind and becomes an enthusiast. Mr. Hugo Toland was the man who knows all about bicycles, and is always ready to share his knowledge. The farce, says the *Globe*, "was acted with splendid spirit," and as it appealed to the personal experiences of most of the people who heard it, it excited a bountiful degree of merriment. The Hollands, strange to say, were able after playing in it to reappear in the three-act comedy *A Man with a Past*, thereby illustrating the difference between the man who acts the beginning bicycler and the man who really does begin, for the real beginner usually finds his first trial a day's work in itself.

It was a particularly happy thought of Mr. Bangs's, who has so many happy thoughts, to seize upon the dramatic possibilities of the most prevalent mania of the day.

Friday and Saturday of last week were devoted by the Hasty-Pudding Club of Harvard to the celebration of its centennial anniversary. There is no Harvard club so widely known as the Pudding. The Porcellian Club is four or five years older, and is an organization of notable prestige and of great present prosperity, but its membership is so limited, and knowledge of its concerns remains so largely in the keeping of its own members, that its renown is more a matter of expert knowledge than of public repute. An older society than either, the Institute of 1770, is devoted to the welfare of Sophomores, and does not rank with the clubs which take in Juniors and Seniors. The Pudding has a pleasant club-house close to the college yard, which, adorned with reminders of its past and present glories, makes one of the most interesting showplaces in Cambridge. It takes in about eighty members from each class, who meet weekly for social converse, the consumption of mush and milk, or fried mush and molasses, and latterly of beer.

More than any other society at Harvard it has represented during these hundred years the social side of the college and university. It was founded on September 8, 1795, by the members of the class of 1797. It seems to have been formed as a patriotic and literary club, and the simplicity of the times is shown in its humble fare. Two of its members were deputed at each meeting to bring in from the house of the good dame who made it a great iron pot of hasty pudding, out of which the members helped themselves alphabetically.

Previous to the Revolution the Harvard Triennial Catalogue published the names of the graduates in the order of the social positions of their families, but in the early days of the republic this order, as well as that of being helped to pudding, had become alphabetical.

Harvard is particularly fortunate in the social attractions it offers its graduates. Among these the various Pudding shows given in Cambridge during the year rank high, attracting scores of the younger alumni from Boston and thereabouts, and keeping them still in touch with the college. In one respect the Hasty-Pudding Club finds itself in the predicament of every other society that forms part of the social organization of Harvard. It selects its members now from classes of over four hundred, but its membership is no larger than when the classes were only half that size. Consequently it cannot perform precisely the social office that it once did, and may expect to see its prosperous rival, the Pi Eta, grow in grace and strength, and other and newer clubs share with both the task of developing the Harvard undergraduates' social instincts.

In 1845 its first theatrical performance was given, a burlesque of *Bombastes Furioso*, and since that date the club has developed its histrionic side, and is now famous all over the country for its theatrical "shows." It still keeps up its simple fare. Its representations call on all the talents of its members, whether for acting, singing, composing music or verse, writing plays and operas, and illuminating the famous "Shingles" which are commemorative of each performance.

It seems that even a London alderman, who for generations has been supposed to be alive only to bargains and green fat, has a sense of propriety which may on occasion be shocked. When the Common Council of London refused the other day to pass a vote of thanks to Sir Joseph Renals, the retiring Lord Mayor, it violated a precedent of more than a century's standing. But Sir Joseph was too flagrantly bad a Lord Mayor for even the easy-going councilmen. His attempted public dinner to Barney Barnato disgusted them, and they found still graver cause of complaint in the appearance of his name as chairman of a company for insuring against loss of liquor licenses (licenses being granted by the Lord Mayor), and as director in a long list of wild-cat companies, most of them now bankrupt. So the motion to thank him was lost by a vote of 75 to 50, and by sending Sir Joseph out of office the worst rebuked Lord Mayor of the century the Common Council has demonstrated that it is not so absolutely useless as has been believed.

Art has found a new home in New York in the Oyer and Terminer court-room in the new Criminal Courts building, where the decorations painted by Mr. Edward E. Simmons, at the instance and cost of the Municipal Art Society of New York, were unveiled on Monday, November 18th. They make a noble and worthy beginning of the work of adorning and beautifying the public buildings of New York.

So far as concerns his general fame, the late Dr. Samuel F. Smith was comparable to the Single-speech Hamilton, whose one great deliverance dwarfed everything else he ever did. Dr. English, who wrote "Ben Bolt," grumbles from time to time over the chance that made him famous as the author of a casual song, but it does not appear that Dr. Smith ever complained of the concentrated reputation that came to him as the author of "America." "America" was his great success, but it was the success of a very deserving person, who had the gift of song in a considerable degree, and who wrote some very good hymns, among them one, "The morning light is breaking," which every adult American who was the child of pious parents knows by heart. That hymn and "America" Dr. Smith wrote while he was a theological student at Andover. All his life he was a copious writer and translator, and it is interesting to know that he was a remarkable linguist, and master—or student at least—of not

SAMUEL FRANCIS SMITH.

less than fifteen languages. After he graduated from the seminary at Andover he became a Baptist minister, had a church in Waterville, Maine, and was at the same time Professor of Foreign Languages in Waterville College, now Colby University. In 1842 he came to Newton, Massachusetts, as pastor of a church there, and for a time edited the *Christian Register*. One of his distinctions was his membership of the famous Harvard class of 1829, reduced now to three surviving members. It was as a '29 man that Holmes wrote of him in lines that have appeared in all of his obituaries:

> "And there's a nice youngster of excellent pith—
> Fate tried to conceal him by calling him Smith;
> But he shouted a song for the brave and the free—
> Just read on his medal, 'My Country,' 'of Thee.'"

It may perhaps be said that his greatness was thrust upon him, but it should be added that his merits were equal to his fame, that his renown became him, and that he never found any trouble in living modestly up to his reputation.

A report comes from Boston that the great painting of Puvis de Chavannes for the Public Library has been seriously damaged in putting it in place. It seems that blisters show on the canvas, and that cuts have been made in the painting in an unskilful and unsuccessful attempt

to cure them. This sounds like very bad work, yet the adjustment of the canvas was in the hands of the same men (from New York) who had charge of placing the Abbey and Sargent pictures. Of course such miscarriages as these will be set right in so far as any remedy is possible.

The National Sculpture Society of New York, to which the Park Board appealed for advice as to the artistic merits of the Heine fountain, has reported, through its secretary, that so far as it is able to judge from photographs the fountain is such a monument as it must recommend the board to reject. It is no worse, the society says, than many monuments now standing in New York, but of that sort there are too many already. This opinion is not conclusive, but it should carry weight, and no doubt it will.

The Roman Catholic Church disavows all responsibility for Schlatter and his cures. It is as well, perhaps, though it seems hardly necessary. So far as Schlatter has gone he has stood on his own feet, and has seemed to show an almost miraculous capacity for taking care of himself and managing his own work. His record so far is such as it appears might reasonably interest the veracious chronicler of the "Personal Recollections of Joan of Arc."

A remarkably full sheaf of mortuary verse has been laid upon the tomb of Eugene Field. In spite of all of it, to us who know him chiefly by his writings he doesn't seem dead. It takes a reputation of great vitality to bear up under the poetic tributes of bereaved admirers.

The reports of Mark Twain's great success in Australia make pleasant reading. It is worth while keeping up a world in the antipodes if a good man, chilled by bad luck, can go there and be warmed in new life and fresh prosperity.

E. S. MARTIN.

LIFE AND LETTERS

THE short story, which is regarded with almost tragical disfavor in the trade, seems to flourish against the despair alike of publisher and bookseller. I mean, of course, the short story associated with other short stories, and published in a volume; its acceptance singly in the magazines has long been eager.

But the anomalous fact I have noted does not interest me so much as some other aspects of the situation. It is not so important, for instance, that two of the first publishing houses of the country should seem this fall to have printed together more volumes of American short stories than volumes of American novels, as that the short stories, generally speaking, should be better art and better literature than the novels. Is this so because the American life is scrappy and desultory, and instinctively seeks its expression in the sketch, the little tale, the miniature romance; or because the short story seems in all literatures to find its development earlier than the full-sized novel? Did our skill in writing short stories create the demand for them in the magazines, or did the demand of the magazines foster the skill? If the reader likes them so much in the magazines that the editors feel they must supply them at all hazards, why should he abhor them so much in the bound volume?

I have not the least notion of answering these questions, and I gladly abandon them for the critical consideration of several volumes of short stories which I have been reading lately with even greater relish than I read short stories in the magazine. Perhaps my irregular attitude in this may be accounted for by the simple detail that I have not bought them, but have had them sent me for review. If I had bought them, I might not have liked them, or if I had liked them best in the magazines, I might not have bought them. I may be the exception that proves the rule, and the trade may be right, after all.

I.

There are four new writers of short stories in the issues of the autumn. Three of these have made their way to the public favor in the magazine, but one is quite a new name to me. Miss Alice Brown is of that New England group of novelettists, mainly women, which is perhaps larger than any like group outside of New England. The names of Miss Jewett, Miss Wilkins, Mrs. Kate Douglas Wiggin, Mrs. Chace-Wyman, will sufficiently suggest it, but by no means fully represent it; and it is praising Miss Brown very highly to say that she is worthy of that company of instinctive and instructed artists. Their work has seemed to deal so exhaustively with the characteristics of rural life in New England, that I recognized with surprise as well as pleasure the novelty of this new-comer's material. Her touch has an originality as delightful, and altogether we can be glad of her book, in the right New England way, with a good conscience. The conditions and the physiognomies she studies are much the same that all those writers deal with, but the atmosphere is less bleak than in Mrs. Wyman's page, the humor is a middle note between that of Mrs. Wiggin's laugh and Miss Jewett's smile, and the figures have a softer outline than Miss Wilkins's people. These writers all remind you of one another, at times; at other times each is strictly and unmistakably herself, and it is to be said of Miss Brown that she is like the rest in both respects.

Meadow-Grass. Tales of New England Life. By Alice Brown. Boston: Copeland & Day.

II.

She could not have written, for instance, Fame's Little Day in Miss Jewett's latest volume; or The Only Rose, or The Guests of Mrs. Timms, or All My Sad Captains; but neither could any of the others. It is in such exquisite refinements of her talent that the author is most distinct and superior. In these it is as if she merely waited before her theme, and all its shy and elusive qualities began to appear, as the wild things of the woods will if you sit down in their shadowy home and have patience with them. In her less fortunate moments she has the effect of coaxing them, and of failing to get them to come. In the sketch which gives its name to the book, she seems unaware that certain factitious apparitions have substituted themselves for the real aspects of life; or else it is my peculiar misfortune never to have seen the kindness between classes which she studies there with a pleasure you can hardly refuse to share, but which seems to me to infect all the character with something supposititious and unreal.

The Life of Nancy. By Sarah Orne Jewett. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin, & Co.

III.

In Mrs. Wiggin's book I miss the rich humor that I should have said was most significant of her, if I had not been given pause by the strain of tender poetry in Tom of Blueb'ry Plains, and the Fore-room Rug. Sometimes this charming writer overworks her gift of pathos, and evokes a certain falsetto from it, but in the study of the half-crazed, freedom-loving vagrant whose dream of happiness is keeping out of the poorhouse, and in the sketch, dramatically monologued, for the most part, of the rug in which all the passion and grief of a household's life is interwoven, the note is pure and unfailingly true. It is so good that it shall remain with me, at least, as most representative of the author until she gives us again something so deliciously droll, so felicitously audacious as Penelope in England.

The Village Watch-Tower. By Kate Douglas Wiggin. Houghton, Mifflin, & Co.

IV.

I suspect I did not find The Nooning-Tree so genuine as the things I have mentioned. But I have no fault to find with The Village Watch-Tower. It has not the poetry of the others, but it is full of human nature, touched with imagination, and that is no very bad substitute for poetry. Perhaps that is poetry, and I mean merely that it is not the kind which wrings your heart. There is something in the piece, or the art of it, which has made me think of still another writer of short stories, and still another woman. I suppose that this common property of The Village Watch-Tower and of Miss Gertrude Smith's sketches is their being in a certain sort merely *statements;* but I am not sure that I can make out the case, after all. If the reader can find no justification of my theory in the comparison I invite him to make, I am sure he will thank me for sending him to Miss Smith's book, so immortal after being a year out of the press that I offer no excuse for speaking of it. The stories are of that New England life which, after several transplantings, finds itself growing so vigorously on the Western prairies; and the new thing that Miss Smith does in them is to state scarcely more than a mood, a circumstance, an isolated fact; to present a phase; to suggest a passage of life; but to do this so firmly, freely, truly, that the reader's sympathy is kindled, and the light of his own mind is thrown upon the picture. I mention A Lone Old Woman, A Hope Deferred, and An Only Son, as very striking examples of a most intelligent and self-comprehended art, which has thought and felt its way to as novel a form as any I know.

The Rousing of Mrs. Potter and other Stories. By Gertrude Smith. Houghton, Mifflin, & Co.

V.

I am grateful for something of the same sufficing slightness in the best work of Mr. Julian Ralph. He knows when to leave off, but he does not always know how to leave out, and at times his work is marred by his first-personal explanation of things that ought to be shown and said dramatically, or parenthetically at least. In his eagerness to possess the reader of the situation fully, he explains and interprets unduly; but when he fancies himself on intelligible ground he drops the sign-painter and puts on the artist with an effect that makes me wish he could have a little more faith in me. Cordelia's Night of Romance and Dutch Kitty's White Slippers are the best of these East-Side sketches, because they are the frankest, but all of them are full of local color and local character. I am sorry to say that the character is sometimes sentimentalized, and sometimes, I think, misrepresented; as if Mr. Ralph fell a prey at such times to false literary tradition, and was tempted to gild the honest East-Side dirt, and so make it more acceptable to clay of prouder mould. I doubt, for instance, whether any real East-Sider ever has the romantic respect for "t'oroughbred" society ladies expressed by Petey Burke. Rather I believe there is never any pretence of regard between high and low, except when the poor are trying to make interest with the rich for this world, and the rich are trying to make interest with the poor for the other world. In either case there is no love lost; and not the smallest reverence.

People we Pass. Stories of Life among the Masses of New York City. By Julian Ralph. Harper & Brothers.

VI.

The life studied by Mr. Fox in the mountain border-land of Kentucky and Tennessee is scarcely wilder than that Mr. Ralph knows so well. But there it has an out-of-doors wildness, and that makes a difference. It is the life of the pure English race, too, and the East-Side life is mixed of all stirps, accents, nations, and religions, though it is prevalently Celtic and Teutonic. The ground is not quite new in either case, but if Mr. Ralph is not first upon his he is easily first there in another sense, while Mr. Fox has the formidable priority of Miss Murfree in her stories of kindred nature and human nature. It should therefore be all the more gratifying to him if the reader recognizes a fresh vision in his way of seeing them, and a novel touch in his way of presenting them. Both vision and touch, without being surer, perhaps, are clearer and more direct. Mr. Fox has by no means proved himself the equal of Miss Murfree, but he has arrived later, when the right methods of fiction have been ascertained; he has not had to outlive the false school in which we of another generation were bred, and whose influence Miss Murfree did not escape. It is high testimony to the truth of her art that one working in the same field confirms the impression of its reality by his later observation and report, and it is no question of his originality that at his best he makes you think of her. His best, in my opinion, is the story called A Mountain Europa, which has a tender charm, a delicate and enduring pathos no words at second hand can convey. The girl Easter is of the type which Miss Murfree has taught us to know, but she is portrayed with a poetic distinctness and a purity of color which are apt to be wanting at times in the earlier novelist's vaguer and dimmer presentments of such wild-flower natures. The boy Isom in The Cumberland Vendetta, and The Last Stetson, is strictly of Mr. Fox's own divination, so far as I remember; and I will not say he is less important than this girl. He is kept very simple throughout, and equally true in the turmoil of passion and conscience which mainly forms his life. I confess that the other types in Mr. Fox's stories interest me less, but I do not mean to say that there is less skill shown in them. Dad, in A Mountain Europa, is to the life and admirably caught, and the whole group of murdering Stetsons and Lewallens in A Cumberland Vendetta are done with few touches of insincerity or exaggeration. Martha Lewallen is almost worthy a place beside Easter.

A Cumberland Vendetta, and other Stories. By John Fox, Jun. Harper & Brothers.

VII.

In a cheerfuler sort I find Major Tom Slocomb in Mr. F. Hopkinson Smith's volume quite as racily local and natural as Mr. Fox's people, and perhaps even more novel. He is done with spirit, with joy, with a humor which has depth as well as breadth; for he is not obvious to the eye that looks upon the surface alone. The fine old Virginian gentleman who is of good family merely by marriage, and who inherits the grandeur and social dignity of his predecessor, as well as his fallen fortunes with the widow, so that he survives her in a splendid oblivion of his antenuptial past, is a conception so epical that I wish Mr. Smith could have given his whole book to it. I would gladly have spared the other stories in it, if I might have dwelt with the Major to the end.

A Vagabond Gentleman and some Others. By F. Hopkinson Smith. Houghton, Mifflin, & Co.

VIII.

For like reasons I begrudge the room given to the love-business of La Tinaja Bonita (though it is rather fresh and novel as love-businesses go) amidst the broad-shouldered, six-foot verities of Mr. Owen Wister's wild Western world. Possibly it is all true enough, but it is comparatively unimportant, and it does not impress itself as life, and the other things do. While I am about the disagreeable part of my affair, I will say also that I wish some one might get away from this most promising writer the blue-fire which he is fond of burning in some of his scenes. That belongs with the muted music and other devices of the theatre; and is not of the robust honesty of the rest of his art. Such a thing as the true homicide's killing himself, for instance, in Salvation Gap, to make it right with the wrong man whom they have hanged for his crime, does not commend itself as a thing that happened, and most things in Mr. Wister's stories bring the conviction that they happened. In fact the frontier, if we still can be said to have a frontier, lives in his pages, and is almost as sensible to the vision as Mr. Remington's most manful illustrations. The book is a man's book throughout, in text and picture, and perhaps it was well enough to subdue its intense masculinity with some guitar-tinkling, as in La Tinaja Bonita. It is at any rate difficult to fancy a woman taking pleasure in such a potent bit of drama as The Second Missouri Compromise, though it is infinitely precious of its kind, and is the best thing in the book. Desperadoes, good and bad, have been done before; red savages, and white semi-savages, gamblers, traders, miners, ranchmen, and the whole wicked world of the border have been done before, though never, I think, so well as Mr. Wister has done them. But the politicians of the far West, with their various origins North and South, remained for him, and he has made them immortal; or if not quite that, then he has made them what they really are, and that is perhaps more difficult. The whole situation in the sketch I mean, is deliciously humorous, while it is thrilling with repressed tragedy. It is masterly.

Red Men and White. By Owen Wister. Harper & Brothers.

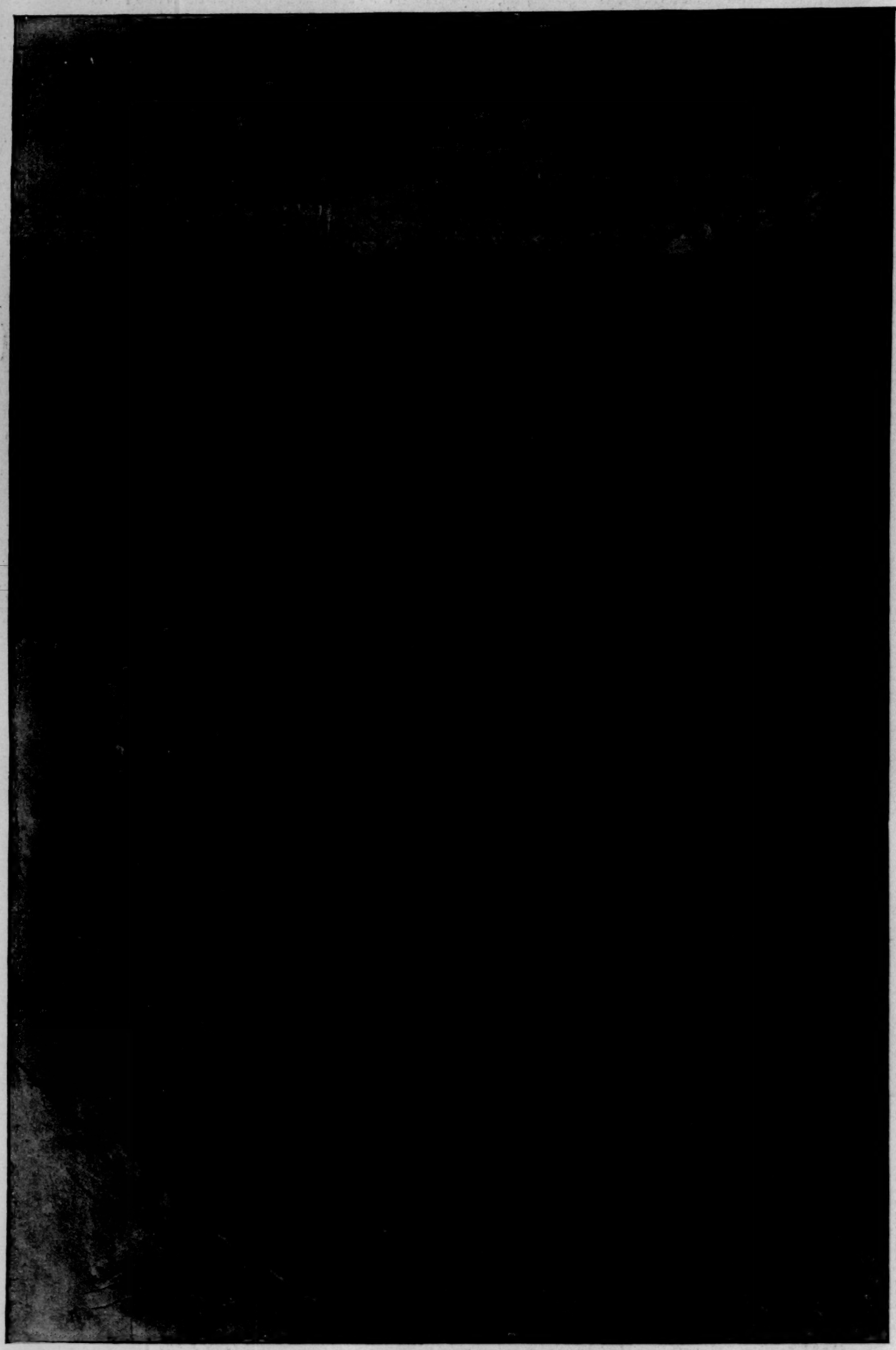
I do not know the military type so well, but Mr. Wister's soldiers, officers and men both, strike me as the real thing. He makes me see them as distinctly as Mr. Remington does, and with a satisfying suggestion which only the literary art can give. Their uniforms brighten immensely the picturesqueness of his scenes; and his Indians lend their savage splendor, their savage squalor to it with almost equal effect. They convince of their truth; you feel that it is quite so they would think, and that their motives for good and ill would be almost for the first time in literature those attributed to them.

IX.

I think Mr. Wister's humorous sense is keener than some other perceptions of his. It is at least native and unspoiled, and if I were very hypercritical I might accuse him of forcing the poetry of his material a bit, of coaxing its dramatic implications, of even over-painting its picturesqueness. In a word, I might grieve for some lingering traits of romanticism in his work, as I must in the case of most of these other people whom I have been trying to thank for the pleasure they have given me. It is only in Miss Brown's book and in Miss Smith's that I find little or nothing of it, though in all the realistic spirit is prevalent.

I do not know whether it will seem ungracious or not, but I am sure it will not be ungallant, if I say that in these volumes of short stories the artistry of the women seems finer than that of the men. Whether this is because the slighter form lends itself more willingly to their touch, or because each of the men I have noticed is newer to the work than most of the women, I cannot say, but I think the fact is what I have noted. Their work is so good, so incomparably good in our language at least (and I think in any), that the work of the men might well be less perfect without imperilling the primacy of the American short story.

W. D. HOWELLS.



MORE THAN HIS SHARE FOR A THANKSGIVING DINNER.—Drawn by P. S. Newell.

"'TAKE GOOD KEER OF THE LIGHT, 'LIZ'BETH,' HE MURMURED."

THE PETTIE SISTERS' LIGHT.

BY CAROLINE TICKNOR.

THE October sunset had spent its wondrous alchemy upon the wide Western river, converting it first into liquid gold, then to dull copper, and lastly into molten lead. And after that the dusk drew its dark mantle softly over the surface of the water, as if to shield it from the swift-descending night.

Out on a little promontory which commanded a sharp bend in the stream the figure of a woman was dimly outlined. In her hand she held a lantern, which she was carefully adjusting to a slender pulley. This being attached securely, she slowly hoisted the lantern, up, up, watching it meanwhile with a breathless interest, until it swung in safety at the top of a white pole. The light in its ascent illumined for an instant a frail bent figure and a wan and wrinkled face fanned by straggling gray locks, which the evening breeze blew loosely across her forehead.

A moment later she made the rope fast, and then stood gazing proudly up at the bright little beacon, which for so long a time had stood a faithful sentinel at this important post. Many and many a boat had by its rays been safely guided round the dangerous bend.

Elizabeth Pettie fingered the fastening of the rope once more, and then, being convinced that it was firmly hitched, as it had been every night for the past two years, she slowly wended her way back to the tiny cottage, which was hardly more than a rude shanty, where she and her sister Jane had lived for over half a century.

To them the small and gleaming light was both a precious object and a mighty one, and the well-trodden path which stretched from their poor habitation touched, when it reached the bare white pole, the Mecca of all their earthly ambitions and desires.

Proud, ah! inexpressibly proud they were to think that up and down the river for a score of miles the twinkling star upon their little promontory was pointed out by the inhabitants as the "Pettie sisters' light."

To tend the light was to the sisters the acme of human happiness. They dreamed of no greater privilege in life than that of polishing the glass until it shone like crystal, trimming the wick with perfect accuracy, and pouring in with reverential touch just the required amount of oil. The adoration that others felt for parents, children, sweethearts, they bestowed on their beloved light.

Living alone, shut off from the outside world, their one aspiration from earliest childhood had been to tend the light. For many years they watched their father handle it with the greatest care and respect; never had he allowed them even to touch it until the week before he died, when he became too sick to leave his bed.

Then it was that Jane had eagerly taken upon herself the welcome task. She was the younger of the sisters, but she had from childhood been accustomed to take the lead in everything; she was straight and strong, and had, moreover, been endowed with her father's iron frame and dogged phlegmatic temperament; she rarely smiled, and never had been known to shed a tear. Jane took upon herself the lion's share of the labor upon the small farm, which was their own, and could turn off a hard day's work, which would have tired out an average farm hand, with a scornful ease most galling to her frailer sister.

Elizabeth had always been delicate; she was slightly lame; and her figure, never straight, became more stooping as the years went on. She was, besides, possessed of a nature highly nervous and excitable, which was a phenomenon quite beyond the comprehension of her more than stolid parent and sister.

On that first night when Jane took it upon herself to trim the light Elizabeth followed her uneasily out of the cottage, where the sick man lay tossing from side to side.

"Hain't you better let me help you?" she queried, bestowing a longing glance upon the object in her sister's hands.

"Now, 'Liz'beth," Jane responded, shortly, "you jest go an' set by father. If I ken do the hull rest of the work, I reckon I ken do this too."

For several days the old man grew steadily worse. Jane trudged eight miles for the doctor, but when he came he only shook his head, and said he couldn't last much longer, and reminded the sisters that he was eighty-five years old.

The sick man's mind wandered much of the time, but during occasional lucid intervals, his thoughts dwelt ever on the subject of the light.

"Take keer of the light, 'Liz'beth," he murmured to her as she knelt weeping beside him; "take good keer of the light."

And again, when Jane sat quietly at his bedside through the long hours of the night, he turned to her, imploring, "Take keer of the light, Jane; take good keer of it, an' don't yer leave it go out."

It was some time after the old man's death when Elizabeth again broached the subject so dear to both their hearts, though she watched daily with envious eyes while Jane performed the coveted task. At last, however, she could contain herself no longer.

"It 'pears to me as we might take turns at the lamp," she ventured, nervously, fingering a new wick which her sister was preparing to adjust.

"Now, 'Liz'beth, dew let alone that wick," Jane answered, impatiently, taking it from her. "Why can't yer be content, an' not forever fussin' to be a-doin' somethin' else?"

A stubborn look crept into Elizabeth's watery eyes. "I guess I'm oldest—" she began.

"An' do a mighty sight of work," broke in her sister.

Elizabeth began to whimper. "I hain't furgit father's dyin' words. 'Liz'beth, take care of the light,' sez he."

Jane listened impassively, as she slowly screwed up the new wick. "An' didn't he say precisely the same to me?" she queried, sharply.

"P'r'aps he did," the other responded. "I ain't askin' to do it the hull time."

"It's well you ain't," Jane returned, decidedly; then she arose and crossed the room to an old-fashioned bureau, which was one of their few pieces of furniture. From a little drawer she took a crumpled piece of paper, and unfolding it, she held it before her sister's eyes.

"It's my rights, an' I shall stick to it," she announced, conclusively, pointing with her finger to a line of crabbed writing.

This was old Mr. Pettie's will. Not a very imposing document, but of vital importance to the sisters. In it he stated that the land (his sole possession besides the tiny cottage) he divided between his daughters. To Jane he left the land north of the little path which led out to the light, while all that lay south of it fell to Elizabeth's share.

Now the path ended at a large flat rock, and a little to the right of it the white pole had been planted, making the light stand just a trifle on the northern side, and placing it upon Jane's land. This fact seemed to Jane conclusive evidence that the old man had meant to put into her charge the precious light.

"If 'twas on your side you should hev it, an' be done with it," she said, restoring the will to its accustomed place; "but as it ain't, you might as well allow as father knowed what he was doin'."

And so Jane kept the light, and ever rigorously tended it herself; so that, despite Elizabeth's complaints and coaxings, she never was permitted even to help pour in the oil.

Each month Jane went to receive the ten-dollar remittance, which seemed to them a princely sum; and though she gave half of it into her sister's keeping, Elizabeth always felt her insignificance most keenly on those monthly pay-days.

Several uneventful years flew by, and then there came a change, heralded by a tremendous equinoctial storm, which did much harm far up and down the river. The hurricane rushed wildly across the little promontory, threatening to sweep away the light, and madly rocking the tiny cottage where the sisters dwelt until it seemed that the next gust of wind must lift it from its place and whirl it down the cliff into the river.

When the storm at last subsided, the little cottage still stood its ground unharmed; it was perchance too slight an object to merit notice from so great a storm; but the pole was sadly bent and damaged. The sisters viewed it mournfully, and vainly tried to prop it up and straighten it again. Fortunately it was only a few days later that the Inspector's welcome boat steamed round the bend, bringing the annual supplies, and ready to perform all necessary repairs.

The Pettie sisters should have a fine new pole, the Inspector told them, gayly; and Jane, starting down the hill with her market-basket on her arm, glanced back with satisfaction at the workmen who were rapidly hauling down the weather-beaten sentinel.

"They'll hev a nice new spick-an'-span one up when I

git back, I reckon," she mused, as she trudged on her way.

Sure enough, when she returned the pole was up, and the Inspector's boat had steamed away around the bend.

Elizabeth was waiting for her at the cottage door. Jane set down the market-basket and turned towards her sister; then she paused and looked curiously at her. Some astounding change had certainly come over her since she went away. Elizabeth's face was radiant; her eyes sparkled, and her breast was heaving, while her crooked form seemed in the last few hours to have grown more erect. Jane eyed her critically for several moments, and then said, slowly, "What ails you, 'Liz'beth?"

But Elizabeth did not reply; she only smiled, and pointed up at the new white pole.

Jane looked for a few seconds intently in that direction, and then darted up the narrow path. The new pole had been set up on its southern side.

Elizabeth hurriedly limped after her sister, who, in a perfect frenzy, had rushed upon the pole and grasped it as if she would root it up and hurl it over the cliff. With all her might she threw herself against it, exerting her whole strength to shake it from its place; but it remained firm and immovable, and she might as well have wasted her strength upon the cliff itself.

Elizabeth stood watching her, her exultation changed to fright.

"It warn't my fault they changed it," she protested, weakly; "I never seen um doin' it till it was up, an' I can't help it if it's on my side," she added, unable to conceal her satisfaction at the thought.

Then her sister turned madly upon her. "You lie," she cried; "you did it ter rob me of the light, an' I will never speak ter you agin." Then she struck her in the face, a stinging blow across her cheek, and pushing her aside, rushed by her down the narrow path.

The force of the blow caused Elizabeth to reel for a moment; then she staggered back to the flat rock, and sat down on it to think. And as she thought, a new, hard, and determined look came into her face. Jane had struck her, and she would not soon forget that blow; and then the injustice—as if it would ever have occurred to Elizabeth to ask the men to move the pole! She took out a large bandanna handkerchief and sobbed into it, and held it against her smarting cheek.

"If she don't want ter speak, she needn't," she meditated. "I'll jest keep it from her the hull time, too, as she has kep' the light from me"; and with this bitter resolution taken, Elizabeth hobbled up, and slowly walked back to the cottage. When she had first realized that the light was on her land she could have jumped for joy, despite her lameness, for she felt that fortune had at last smiled upon her. Now, at least, Jane would acknowledge her claim upon the light, and let her share the task of taking care of it. No thought of setting up a claim to usurp the entire privilege had for an instant entered Elizabeth's mind. But now war had been declared, and Jane should see that she could be unyielding too.

And from that hour a most uncanny silence reigned in the little cottage on the cliff. Days lengthened into weeks, and weeks slipped into months, and still the two lone women, living together in one bare room, preserved their hostile attitude.

From that dreadful hour Jane ignored the very existence of the light. To all outward appearance she no longer retained the slightest interest in her former idol. She studiously avoided even glancing up when Elizabeth lighted the lamp each night and sallied forth with it. She did her work as she had always done it, never sparing herself the hardest labor or the heaviest task; but she plainly showed Elizabeth that never for a moment did she forgive her for the changed position of the light.

At first her sister made repeated overtures, but all in vain; for Jane turned a deaf ear to all entreaties, and scornfully walked off whenever she proposed a compromise. And so at last Elizabeth accepted the situation, and passively acquiesced in the unpleasant line of action mapped out for her by Jane.

Being almost wholly shut off from any human intercourse, the light now became her sole companion. She tended it at frequent intervals during the day, often repolishing it a dozen times, and finding her one delight in this employment. Through the day she counted the hours which must elapse before the enchanted moment should come for her to swing the sparkling light aloft into its place, and when she awoke at night her one thought was to calculate how many hours must pass before it was time to lower the lamp again.

In this way nearly two years of silence—active on one side and passive on the other—sped by, and on the fine and clear October evening above referred to Elizabeth stood looking proudly at the light. Then she took a few steps backward and sat down on the flat rock; her breath came with an effort, and she seemed almost exhausted now that her evening task was done. After a little space she arose and started down the path, but on her way she turned several times and paused and looked back at the light, and twice she quickly put her hand up to her side, as if attacked by some sharp pain. When she entered the house, Jane was seated at her end of the living-room reading a letter, which she thrust into her pocket as her sister came in, and then, rising from her seat, she left the room, stepping hastily out into the dark and shutting the door sharply behind her.

Elizabeth looked after her and sighed, then she lighted her candle at the other side of the room and wearily took up a stocking she was knitting. After she had done a few stitches, however, she laid the work aside as if she had not strength to move the needles to and fro, and went to bed.

Jane left the house as she had done every night for the past two weeks, and stepped swiftly to a small shed back of the cottage, where the farm implements were kept; there she selected a shovel and a pickaxe, and with them stole quietly up the path. At the foot of the pole she paused, and an exultant gleam came into her eyes; she drew a long breath of satisfaction, and then went to work. Cautiously she laid back the sods about the foot of the pole with the shovel, and then worked away with the pickaxe, loosening the earth for several yards around, prying up pieces of rock, and undermining in every way she could the foundation on which the white pole rested.

After she had labored for some time, she replaced the sods and hurried back, noiselessly putting away the shovel and pickaxe, and stealing silently into the cottage. When she returned, Elizabeth's candle had been for some time extinguished, and the sound of her heavy, uneven breathing could be plainly heard. Jane's candle was still burning upon the table by her cot. She approached it and stealthily drew the letter from her pocket; then, with her back turned towards her sister, she stooped over and held the written page close to the feeble flame.

The letter was from the Inspector of Lights. "I am sorry that you should feel any anxiety about the safety of your light," he wrote, "and I will see that everything is fixed up promptly as it should be. You may expect me the first of next week, just what day I cannot say. I regret that my men should not have planted your pole securely, and will see that it is placed this time in the spot you indicate as most desirable."

Thrice Jane read this welcome note, and then, restoring it to the depths of her pocket, she too crept into bed.

A few days later the Inspector's pretty white steamer dropped anchor off the point, and almost immediately a small boat put ashore. In it sat the Inspector's lovely young wife, who was accompanying her husband on this trip. With an enthusiasm born of sympathy, curiosity, and a fondness for novel experience, she boldly attacked the strongholds of the light-house folk, and by small gifts and many cheering words won for herself warm friends wherever a light peeped out across the river.

On this occasion the Inspector was still busy on the boat when pretty Mrs. Inspector lightly stepped ashore and picked her way up the steep path which led to the summit of the cliff. A moment later she knocked at the cottage door. Elizabeth only was at home, Jane being outside working in the potato-patch, from which she had already spied the Inspector's boat, so that even as Mrs. Inspector knocked, Jane was hastening to the water's edge to waylay the Inspector.

"May I come in?" Mrs. Inspector said, in such a winning tone that Elizabeth forgot her momentary confusion, and gratefully took the slender outstretched hand extended towards her. The visitor sat contentedly in the straight-backed chair awkwardly proffered by her hostess, and told bright little anecdotes about her trip along the river; then she tried to draw from Elizabeth some description of her lonely life, and was so interested in all she said that her entire call seemed to the other the visitation of some beauteous fairy.

While she talked, Mrs. Inspector several times looked anxiously at Elizabeth, marked her labored breathing and the burning spot in either sunken cheek. "I fear you are not well," she said at last.

"Oh, 'bout as usual," Elizabeth replied; "I reckon I ain't as smart this mornin' as I be most times."

Mrs. Inspector rose. "I'm quite a doctor," she remarked, "and I shall send you up some medicine from the boat." Then, as she neared the door, she said, "So you two sisters live here all alone, summer and winter; don't you ever find it lonesome?"

Elizabeth shook her head rather doubtfully. "The light's a sight of company," she answered.

"The light!" Mrs. Inspector laughed; "is it, indeed? but not the same as human company, I fancy. Then," she continued, "how devoted you two sisters must be, living here by yourselves so many years!" She looked quite sadly at Elizabeth as she concluded, "I trust you may be spared to one another for a long, long time, for you must love each other dearly"; and with a friendly hand-clasp she withdrew, and thoughtfully strolled out on to the cliff.

Already the Inspector had come ashore, and he stood talking with Jane, who seemed to be earnestly explaining something to him, while she gesticulated and pointed to the pole. A workman near by was on the point of driving a spade into the ground.

"Well, this do seem all kind of honeycombed," he announced, as the Inspector's wife joined the group. "I declare, I never seen a bit of ground quite like this," he said, continuing to dig; "if it ain't just ready to cave right in, I will give up."

"Very well," the Inspector said, turning to Jane, "we will move the pole over to the other side again, as you suggest, but we will first make sure that the ground is in good condition there. Possibly we may not be able to get your pole up before to-morrow morning, so for one night this point will have to do without its light."

Then, turning towards his wife, the Inspector exclaimed: "Ah! so you got ashore ahead of me. My dear," he added, "this is Miss Jane Pettie, who, with her sister, takes care of this light."

Jane extended her hand clumsily, and Mrs. Inspector took it cordially. "I've just made a little call upon your sister," she began, affably, while she mentally compared the masculine physique of Jane with her sister's frail and feeble one. She also noticed that Jane bore herself with an assured, triumphant air, which contrasted strangely with the subdued and timid aspect of Elizabeth.

A shade flitted across Jane's face at the mention of her sister; for she was conscious of feeling mean and underhanded when she thought of her. The little lady, however, misinterpreted her sudden change of countenance.

"I'm afraid your sister is not well," she ventured, sympathetically.

"Oh, I reckon she's well enough," Jane responded, coldly.

Mrs. Inspector eyed her with surprise. Was she, after all, wholly without affection for her sister? Perhaps she had even been accustomed to treat her unkindly! Inspired by this thought, she fired up at once.

"I should say your sister was very ill indeed, and needed all the care and attention you could give her," she said, sharply. "I'm going to send her up some medicine at once," she added, turning away.

Jane gazed at her stolidly while she was speaking, but when she finished made no response.

"Is she a stone?" the other murmured, wonderingly, to herself. Then she came back a few steps, and said, appealingly, in a changed voice: "Oh, can't you realize how lonely you would be without her, all alone on this bleak spot? Ah, surely it cannot be that you do not love your sister!"

Jane made no reply, but turned shortly about and walked back towards the cottage, as if she had not heard the words which sank into her soul. It seemed to her that suddenly a mirror had been held up before her in which she saw herself just as she was. No dim outline of that self she had falsely conjured up remained to obscure the truthful likeness, and she shuddered at the hateful sight.

This, then, was her hour of triumph—this was what she had schemed and drudged and lied for: to take from the sick and helpless her one poor pleasure in life.

Over and over again the mournful words rang in her ears, "All, all alone on this bleak spot!" and yet again, "Ah, it cannot *be* you do not love your sister!" She quickened her steps and hurriedly opened the cottage door.

Elizabeth was seated by the table trimming the lamp; her breath came with an effort; and Jane noticed, as she rubbed the glass caressingly, how ghastly pale she was. Jane sat down on her bed and watched her silently for several minutes, then hesitated, cleared her throat, and said, quite gently, "'Liz'beth, you're tired; I reckon a cup of tea 'll fix you up a bit," and she bustled over to the stove.

Elizabeth eyed her for a short time in mute astonishment, then put her hand quickly to her side, while tears slowly began to trickle down her wrinkled cheeks.

Jane set the tea before her and stood over her, watching with a piercing gaze while she took half a dozen sips. Why had she never noted till now the change which had been gradually creeping over Elizabeth, her only sister? And again the words rang in her ears, "How lonely you would be without her!"

Elizabeth drank half of the tea, and then set down the cup and looked at Jane. "I've been thinkin', Jane," she said, "as how I've hed my turn at the light, an' now it's better for you ter hev it. I guess I ain't so spry as I was, an' I dun'no' as I'd ought ter bed it anyhow, seein' you do all the work."

"Don't talk like that, 'Liz'beth," Jane broke in, huskily; "of course you hed the most right, you bein' the oldest. I've treated you pretty bad, 'Liz'beth—oh, I don't s'pose you ever kin furgive me!"

A tender light shone in Elizabeth's eyes. "I guess there ain't nothin' to furgive," she said, "but what's been long sence furgit. I've a mind to rest a bit," she went on, in a somewhat fainter tone, getting up with an effort from her chair. She took a few steps towards the bed, and then began to sway from side to side. Jane sprang after her, and putting her arm around her, gently helped her across the room.

"I'll put on some catnip tea, 'Liz'beth," she murmured, "an' that 'll do you a sight of good. I know 'twill fix you up fust rate."

But through the evening, despite her sister's efforts, Elizabeth's pulse beat more and more faintly, and she seemed hardly to breathe at all. Frantically Jane administered all the remedies and stimulants which the Inspector's wife had promptly sent up from the boat, with no result more than a momentary rallying of the nearly expended forces.

Elizabeth had passed beyond the reach of medicines, and lay in a half-stupor. Once in a while she would open her eyes and murmur, "You are so good, Jane, so good." And again she would whisper: "I never told um ter move the pole. I never knowed it till it was done."

Through the long watches of the night Jane sat by her sister's bedside, while the faithful lamp burned brightly in the cottage window. For the first time in years its steady light shed no protecting beams adown the river, and the recumbent pole lay uselessly upon the ground. But the light in the cottage window burned low as the first streaks of dawn peered through the half-closed shutters, and ere the sun flamed up from out the river it flickered and went out, and all was still within the cottage.

Clear and bright the noonday sun rested upon the firmly erected pole, standing securely in its place, well on the northern side of the oft-trodden path. It mattered not, however, where it now stood, for there was no one to dispute its ownership, or to present an opposing claim. It might be either north or south now, for the land on both sides of the path belonged to the same owner.

And yet Jane, having attained her heart's desire, threw herself prostrate upon the old flat rock, and wept as if her heart would break.

BALLOON SONG.

Cut the ropes, and away,
For a heart holiday!
We are free! we are free!
'Tis a bubble we ride,
But a sprite is inside;
And sprites, too, are we.
Higher than sorrow may spring;
Swifter than any bird's wing,
We float or we fly
On our way to the sky.
O earth, good-by, and good-by!

Hurrah! for the currents of drift;
For all that the light winds shift!
Where the down that is freed
From a delicate seed
Rides the summits of buoyancy;
And the filmy and fine,
With the atoms that shine,
Are whirled in a luminous levity.
Here, for a day, be our kin;
And let sinking alone be a sin!

O regions weightless and freightless!
O life that forever is dateless!
No mile-stones to measure our courses,
No barriers baffling our forces,
But a motion that is not change.
Time has died; and that cloud
Far below is his shroud.
How sweet, and how strange!

What intimate silence is this?
Dare we even whisper our bliss?
Nay; this is the spirit's emporium,
The bodiless world's auditorium,
Where the subtilest meanings abide.
Let us listen, and speak no word,
Till the ultimate music is heard
Of the Infinite close at our side.

ORRIN CEDESMAN STEVENS.

THE SANDY HOOK PROVING-GROUND.

THERE are undoubtedly a great many places in the United States where experiments and tests of great importance are carried on, but probably none where tests of so vast importance, and at the same time so interesting, are conducted as are those at the United States Army Proving-Ground at Sandy Hook.

Although these experiments and tests are for the steady improvement of our field ordnance and coast defence, for the protection of our country, the necessity of the work and importance of the place are little appreciated outside of army circles.

For several years after the war the Ordnance Department felt the need of a suitable site for testing heavy ordnance, obtaining ranges, and solving the various experimental problems connected with the science of gunnery, which require the best and most approved facilities, such as every other military nation had found it necessary to provide.

As stated in the report of the Chief of Ordnance for 1875, the main features essential to such a site are that it should be comparatively level, easily accessible, not traversed by highways, uninhabited, and sufficiently removed from any settlement to avoid any possible accidents, and embracing an extent of land from seven to eight miles in length and from half a mile to a mile in width. It was deemed desirable that this site should not be very far from the grand arsenal on the Atlantic seaboard, to be built later.

The Jersey coast, extending from Sandy Hook to and including Squan and Island beaches, was found to consist of level and long stretches of sandy beaches. This ground was carefully surveyed and examined, and a site finally selected. While this site did not possess in the highest degree all of the desired requirements, still it was found to be the best on the Atlantic coast within a desirable and convenient distance of New York city and the proposed arsenal. This site was selected and work commenced in the year 1876.

Starting from Pier 3, East River, New York city, in the little steamer *Ordnance*, we pass down the beautiful harbor of New York, through the "Narrows," with Fort Wadsworth on our right and Fort Hamilton and the ruins of old Fort Lafayette on our left, and steam out into the open sea; and if it is a very clear day can see in the distance the faint outlines of Sandy Hook. As we steadily approach our destination we see the several light houses and the life-saving station, and our attention is particularly attracted to the enormous ruins of the unfinished fortification which was started about 1845, and finally abandoned when it was deemed useless to complete it, on account of the progress of our ordnance. Coming still nearer we hear the loud reports of the guns that are being tested, and see rising in the distance great clouds of smoke, which gradually disappear as the sound dies away.

We at last arrive at the proving-ground dock, and are immediately impressed by the vast extent of sand covering the entire proving-ground, necessitating the wide board roads which extend to all necessary points. On our right, facing the open sea, are the barracks for the soldiers, and other large buildings for the accommodation of the one hundred or one hundred and fifty laborers, all employed in the work carried on. As we approach the main battery, where are assembled all the guns of various kinds and calibres, from the 3.6-inch field-mortar to the ponderous 12-inch breech-loading steel-rifled cannon, we see on our left rows of 10-inch and 12-inch breech-loading mortars and heavy guns, which are awaiting test, or have already received their test and are awaiting orders for shipment. On our right we see the carriages which support these huge weapons when mounted in battery, also awaiting test. A little further on we come to a small park enclosed by projectiles of all shapes and sizes, in which are assembled the remains of cannon, carriages, projectiles and armor plates which have failed to stand the test. Within a few feet of this park is the large building which contains all the offices, the photographic department, and in which are assembled all of the most important instruments necessary for the scientific work conducted on the grounds.* Among the more noteworthy of these may be mentioned the Sébert velocimeter, an instrument for measuring velocities in the bore of a piece or at any point beyond the muzzle. This gives valuable information for use in determining the various factors entering into the problem of gun construction and the preparation of suitable powders. The greatest care and accuracy possible are observed, and in order to obtain the most accurate result, three or four of these instruments are used for each shot, and an average of the results obtained is adopted. A little further on we come to the vast ruins of the fortification previously mentioned, and are impressed with the huge walls of granite, from ten to twelve feet thick, so solid and carefully embedded that all attempt to utilize this stone for any other purpose has been abandoned. But notwithstanding this, these walls would be unable to resist the energy of the projectile fired from one of our modern guns at a range of six or eight miles. We finally arrive at the battery proper, where the guns, mortars, carriages, projectiles, armor plates, etc., are assembled, either undergoing, awaiting, or being mounted for test. In front of this battery arise huge mounds of sand, supported by thick timbers, into which many of the projectiles are fired. After a limited number have entered they are dug out, rebanded, and again used for testing purposes, thus saving the government great expense. In work where the charge of powder is too great for safely firing into the sand butts, or where range-firing is being conducted, or where the target is a moving object, and in various other cases where the sand butt could not be safely or conveniently used, the shot is fired out to sea. Long-range firing especially is had over the water, and the distance is measured by the use of plane tables. At the proving-ground one of these is situated at the battery and the other at what is known as the Navesink Light, giving a base-line of a little over five miles. These ranges are obtained by the trigonometrical principle of solving a triangle. At each plane table, or end of the base-line, is stationed an officer who observes the splash made by the projectile striking the water, and which splash is taken as the apex of the triangle. With the base line and the apex given, the two angles at the base are quickly ascertained by means of the plane-table, and from this the range is very accurately obtained. If one of these shots is fired on a very clear day, a person with an accurate eye can plainly see this eight hundred pounds of steel, which appears like a small black speck, moving through the air and finally dying out of sight. A few moments later is seen a huge volume of water rising in the air from sixty to one hundred feet. We still watch, and in a few moments see another and then another, and finally the projectile strikes the water for the last time.

Besides the guns and carriages of foreign or domestic invention or manufacture which are constantly arriving for test, together with others which have been rejected or accepted and are again tested for remedy of faults found or for improvements made, every gun and carriage manufactured by the government or by contract for the government is sent to the Sandy Hook Proving-Ground to undergo a severe and rigid test before being accepted for use: and after this test it is either stored until further orders are received or forwarded to one of our modern fortifications, which are steadily increasing in number.

Within the last two or three years the transportation facilities have been greatly improved. On the proving-ground is a complete railroad system owned by the government, and connected with the Central Railroad of New Jersey. Most of the heavy guns are now received by rail, but many come by boat and are unloaded at the dock, which has full capacity for handling the heaviest ordnance. On our double page may be seen a 12-inch gun being received for test, giving an idea of the awkward method of moving this heavy ordnance before the present facilities were procured. In front of the battery where the guns are mounted for test runs a 90-ton travelling-crane to assist in this mounting. From the main track on which the crane runs extend branch tracks to each of the carriages which are being tested or on which a gun for test is mounted. Thus a gun or carriage can be lifted and conveniently carried to any place in the battery to be remounted. This crane has a greater tonnage than any other crane of its kind in the United States.

Of the many different types of guns tested and experimented with at the proving-ground may be mentioned the rapid or quick fire guns, mountain artillery, field-artillery, siege-guns, heavy guns for coast defence, and sea-coast mortars.

The rapid-fire guns are employed principally in coast defence, but are also used in field service. They employ a metallic cartridge, the one used in the 6-pounder rapid-fire guns being similar in design to that used in our new model army rifle, but weighing about 12 pounds. A competitive test of 6-pounder rapid-fire guns was recently held with a view of selecting a type suitable for our military service. Among the various types submitted may be mentioned the Skoda, Seabury, Driggs-Schroeder, Hotchkiss, and Sponsel. The programme, taken from the report of the Ordnance Board to the Chief of Ordnance, may give an idea of the style and severity of the tests which these guns had to undergo:

The gun to be carefully examined by the board. The number of parts in the breech mechanism, the strength, simplicity, and certainty of action, to be noted; also the ease, safety, and certainty of the breech mechanism as a whole. Note especially to be taken of the action of the firing-pin and extractor, and the maximum outward position of the cartridge when it can be pushed home by the breech-block. During this examination fifty rounds to be fired at will.

Velocity.—Five rounds to be fired with full charges for velocity.

Accuracy.—Ten rounds to be fired at each range of 1000 yards, 1 mile, and 3000 yards, the same condition of aiming being repeated at each round, and the mean deviation determined.

Rapidity.—Determine the number of rounds that can be fired in five seconds—three trials; also number of rounds that can be fired in one minute, three minutes, and five minutes respectively, and finally the time required to fire 100 rounds, noting carefully during the firing, and especially at end of each twenty-five rounds, the conditions of the gun as regards heat, and ease and certainty of action. Two detachments of men, alternating every 25 or 50 rounds, as may be thought advisable.

Rapidity with Accuracy.—Fire 10 aimed shots as rapidly as possible at the 1000 yards and 1-mile targets; also 10 aimed shots at targets in same line, and ranges of 500 and 1000 yards alternately; also 10 aimed shots alternately at targets at about 500 yards' range, placed about 75 feet apart.

Dust.—The mechanism to be exposed to a blast of fine dust in such a manner as to insure its being uniformly and equally covered with the dust, after which 20 rounds to be fired as rapidly as possible.

Excessive Charges.—The gun to be fired with five charges, giving gradually increasing pressure up to 45,000 pounds per square inch, if such pressures are attainable.

Defective Cartridges.—The gun to be tested with defective cartridges in the same manner as is usual in the trial of such arms.

Any rounds that may remain after the above tests to be expended in such manner as may be deemed best by the board as a result of the circumstances developed, the last five rounds to be fired after the mechanism of the gun has been rusted in a thorough and uniform manner.

At a recent test of a 4.7-inch rapid-fire gun occurred one of the most fearful explosions that ever took place at these grounds. The entire breech of the gun was blown off, passing very near two officers who were engaged in the test, and falling about 300 yards in rear of the place of explosion. The base of the cartridge inserted was also blown out, striking and killing one of the brightest and most promising young officers of the army. Regardless of this terrible accident, and the great danger involved in all of the tests, another officer will immediately step into his place and fearlessly face the danger which is constantly present.

Mountain artillery is used for fighting in rough and mountainous country where it would be impossible to transport heavy ordnance. These guns are carried by pack-mules. The mountain artillery consists of several types of machine-guns, together with the 2 and 12 pound Hotchkiss guns. These guns fire metallic ammunition and shrapnel.

Field artillery consists of horse-artillery, light artillery, and heavy field artillery. The gun adopted by the army for horse-artillery is the 3.2-inch breech-loading steel rifle, weighing 829 pounds, and firing a projectile of 13¼ pounds with a charge of 3½ pounds of powder. Light field artillery is used to accompany the infantry, and the piece adopted is the 3.6-inch cannon with a weight of 1181 pounds. The charge for this gun is 4 pounds 8 ounces with a 20-pound projectile.

The siege artillery of our army consists of the 5-inch siege-gun, the 7-inch howitzer, and the 7-inch siege-mortar. These guns are intended for attacking and defending inland and semi-permanent fortifications. The howitzer used for this purpose fires a 100-pound shell at a range of about three miles, and has a rapidity of one shot per minute.

Heavy guns for coast defence consist of the 8, 10, and 12 inch breech-loading rifles, together with the two types of 12 inch breech-loading mortars. An idea may be obtained of the size and cost of these guns when it is stated that the 12-inch breech-loading rifle weighs 127,680 pounds, and the total cost of the gun about $52,000. These guns can only be fired about 300 times, when it is found necessary to insert a new lining. The greatest accuracy is observed in their manufacture, a variation of more than $\frac{1}{1000}$ of an inch not being allowed. We may again obtain an idea of the size and weight of these massive pieces of ordnance when it is stated that one of these 12-inch guns that was recently shipped to San Francisco is said to have been the heaviest piece of freight ever carried across this continent. In order to ship it a special car was manufactured, with a freight capacity of 175,000 pounds. The average capacity of a freight car is from 40,000 to 50,000 pounds.

The charge for a 12-inch rifle is 450 pounds of powder, with a projectile weighing 1000 pounds; the penetration in Creusot steel at a range of two miles is 21 inches; the range of the gun, eight miles.

As stated in the report of the Chief of Ordnance, no other guns of this class in the world have exhibited so great accuracy under similar conditions. This accuracy is shown from the following table taken from the report of the Chief of Ordnance for 1892:

Range, mile	1
Mean vertical deviation from centre of impact, foot	0.56
Mean horizontal deviation from centre of impact, foot	0.56
Range, yards	3000
Mean vertical deviation from centre of impact, foot	1
Mean horizontal deviation from centre of impact, feet	1.75

A better idea of the accuracy of fire of these guns may be obtained from the statement that in a target of five shots, at a range of one mile, four out of the five shots struck within an area of 20 by 21 inches. In another target of eight shots, at a range of about 1¼ miles, six of the eight shots struck within an area of 1½ by 4 feet.

The following* are the conditions prescribed as those to which the 12-inch single-charge steel breech-loading guns must conform:

The weight shall be about 52 tons.

The length of the bore shall be 34 calibres.

The power shall be such as shall be expressed by a muzzle energy of not less than 26,000 foot tons.

The range shall for 20 degrees elevation be about 14,700 yards, and corresponding ranges shall be attained with lower elevations.

The endurance shall not be less than 250 rounds, and a lining may be inserted after 200 rounds.

The weight of projectile for full charges shall be about 1000 pounds.

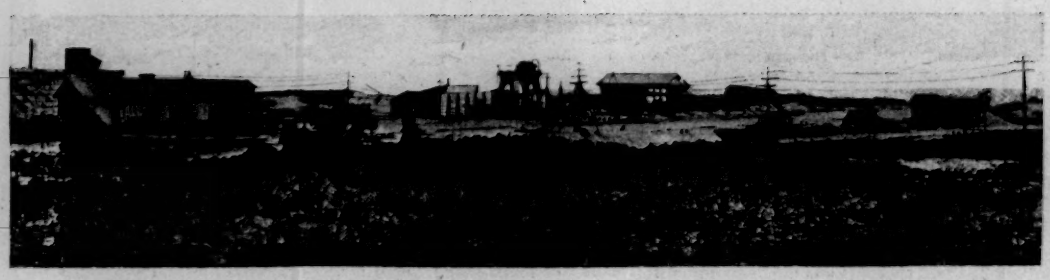
As a proof of general efficiency, the breech mechanism should work freely and be convenient for operating; the opening and closing of the breech to be performed without great difficulty by one man. The projectile shall admit of being readily handled, inserted, and entered in the bore, and not be subject to injury or deformation either in handling or transportation.

The repairs allowable during the entire trial of a gun, exclusive of the insertion of a lining tube, will be confined to repairing and renewing parts injured during trial. No alterations that may affect the general construction of any part will be made without the sanction of the Board. A rapidity of fire of 10 rounds per hour shall be attainable.

The test of the 8 and 10 inch guns is proportionally the same, the rapidity of fire required from the 8-inch being 20 rounds per hour, and from the 10-inch 15 rounds per hour.

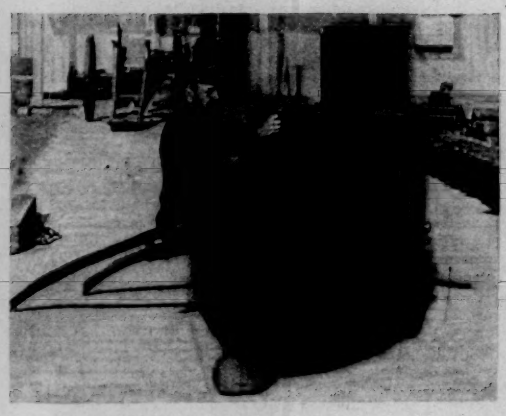
Of the 12-inch coast mortars there are two types—the cast-iron steel-hooped and the all steel. These mortars are used to destroy war-vessels threatening our coast, and fire steel projectiles designed to pierce and to destroy the vessel. The style of projectile used is called "the deck-piercing shell." This shell, after penetrating the deck of the vessel, explodes, completely demolishing it. For many years attempts have been made to obtain a suitable mortar of cast iron, and these attempts have generally been found to be quite if not entirely unsuccessful. In the year 1889 was submitted for test at the proving-ground a 12-inch cast-iron rifled mortar. This mortar was submitted by one of the best known iron-works in the country. Great faith in the efficiency of this gun for strength and endurance was had by the inventor, so much so that when told by the officers that it would be useless to test the gun, he made the remark that he would be perfectly willing to straddle it while it was being fired. The inventor having obtained permission through Congress to have the mortar tested, the test took place at Sandy Hook, in the presence of the Board of Officers and the representatives of the gun. The officers still having very little faith in the gun, the greatest precaution was observed. The mortar was surrounded on three sides by heavy traverses of sand-bags, from 10 to 12 feet thick. The firing was commenced, and at the twentieth round the mortar burst violently into many pieces, which were scattered far and wide, demolishing the top and intermediate carriages, and the traverse of sand-bags. The projectile struck the ground 60 feet from the muzzle of the mortar, broke both the velocity frames, standing respectively 75 and 175 feet from the muzzle, and passed into the sand butt, from which it was subsequently recovered. The muzzle of the mortar was broken into three pieces, one of which went

* From Report of the Board of Ordnance and Fortification, 1892.



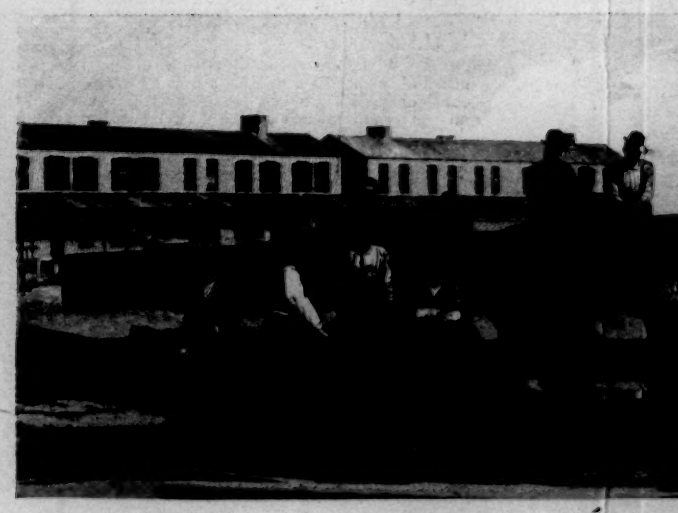
GENERAL VIEW OF HEAVY GUN BATTERY.

8.2-INCH BREECH-LOADING STEEL RIFLE AND CARRIAGE.



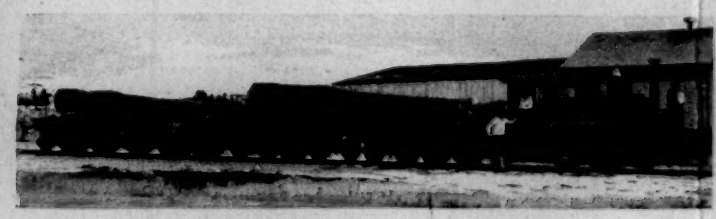
MAXIM AUTOMATIC MACHINE-GUN, CALIBRE .45.

BUILDING UP CARTRIDGE FOR LARGE GUNS.



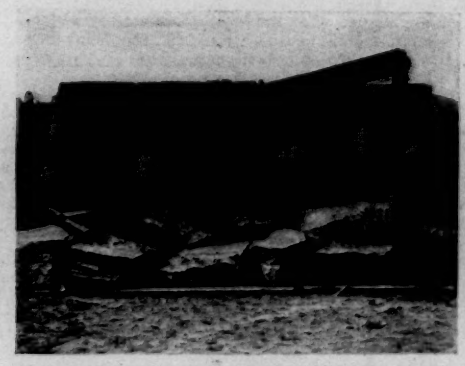
12-INCH BREECH-LOADING

STAR-GAUGING 10-INCH BREECH-LOADING STEEL RIFLED GUN.

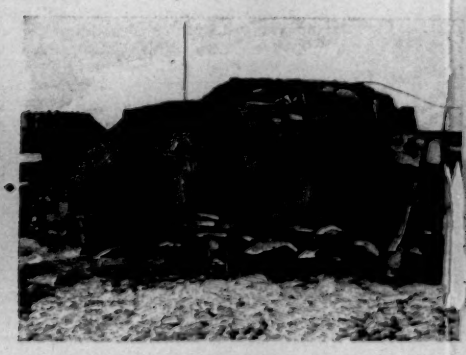


TWO 10-INCH GUNS RECEIVED FROM WATERVLIET ARSENAL UPON ESPECIALLY CONSTRUCTED CARS.

BACKING TO 4½-INCH ARMOR DECK PLATE.



4½-INCH DECK PLATE AND SHELL AFTER SECOND SHOT.

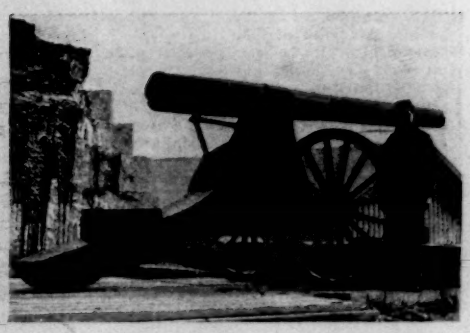


4½-INCH DECK PLATE AFTER FOURTH SHOT.

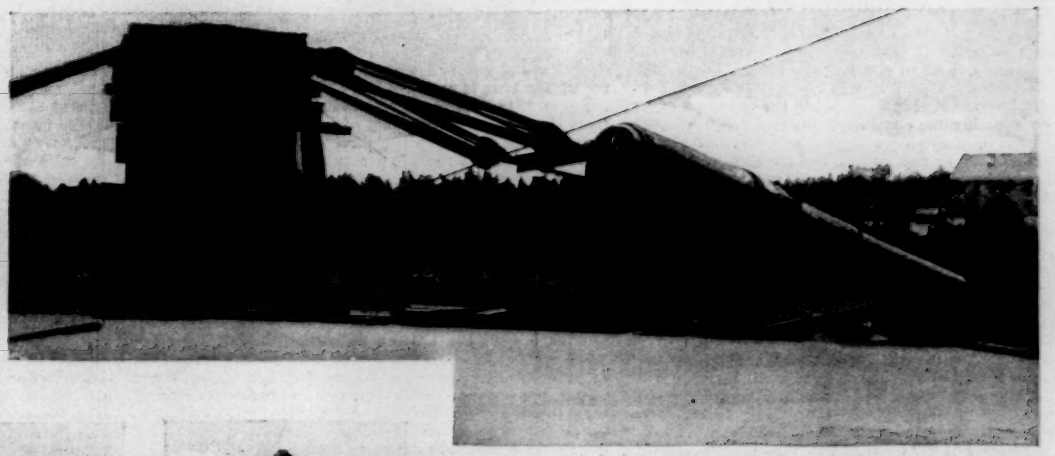
FRONT VIEW OF CAST-IRON MORTAR AND TRAVERSES.

VIEW OF TRAVERSES OF SAND-BAGS AND CARRIAGE AFTER EXPLOSION.

THE UNITED STATES ARMY PROVING-GROUND AT



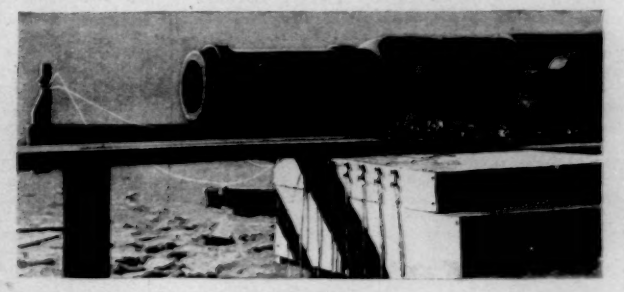
8-INCH BREECH-LOADING RIFLE AND CARRIAGE.



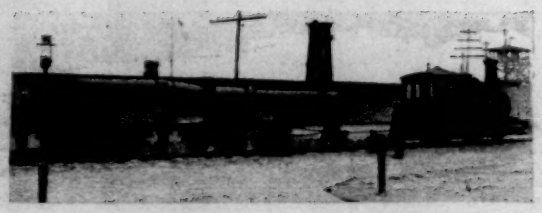
MOUNTING 12-INCH BREECH-LOADING RIFLE ON BATTERY.

ADING RIFLE ON CRADLE.

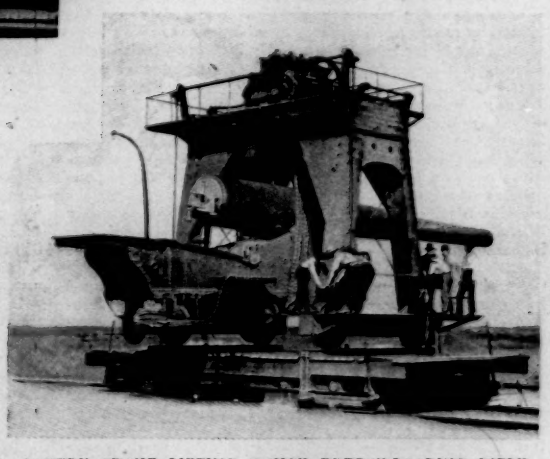
SCHUCKERT SEARCH-LIGHT AND TOWER.



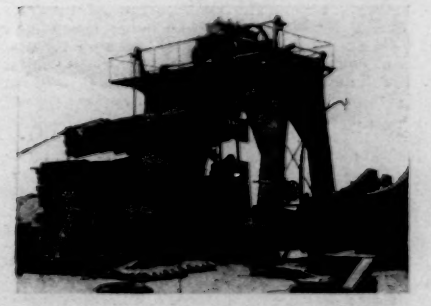
SÉBERT VELOCIMETER.



12-INCH GUN RECEIVED BY WATER BEING TRANSFERRED TO BATTERY FOR TEST.



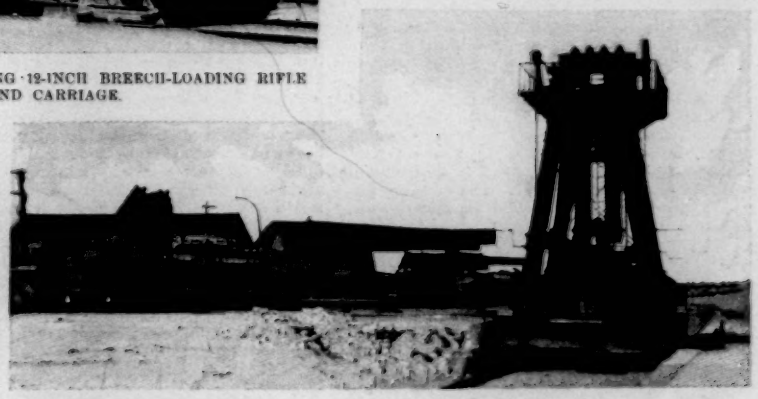
GANTRY CRANE LIFTING 12-INCH BREECH-LOADING RIFLE AND CARRIAGE.



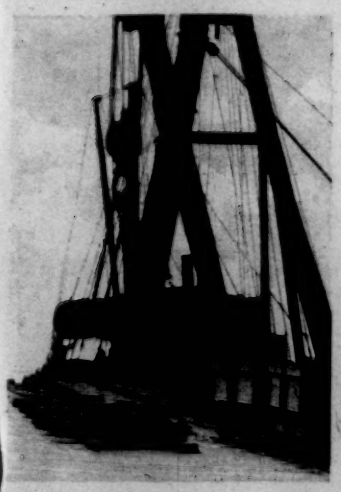
DISMOUNTING 8-INCH GUN FROM BUFFINGTON-CROZIER DISAPPEARING CARRIAGE—REAR VIEW.

RESULT OF SHOT FIRED AT 11½-INCH ARMOR PLATE.

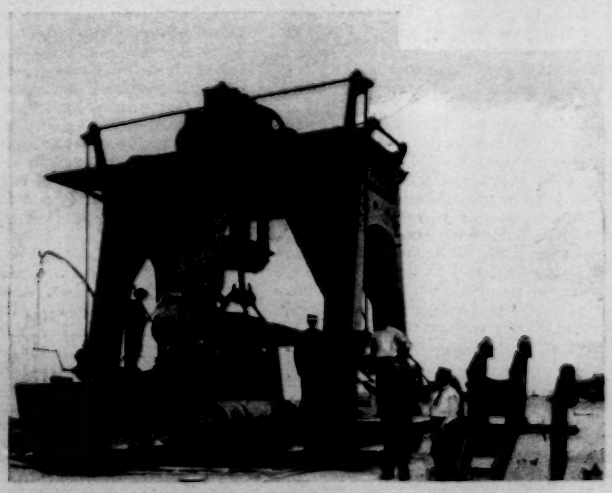
TWO CAST-STEEL SHELLS FIRED AT 4½-INCH DECK PLATE—ONE BROKEN.



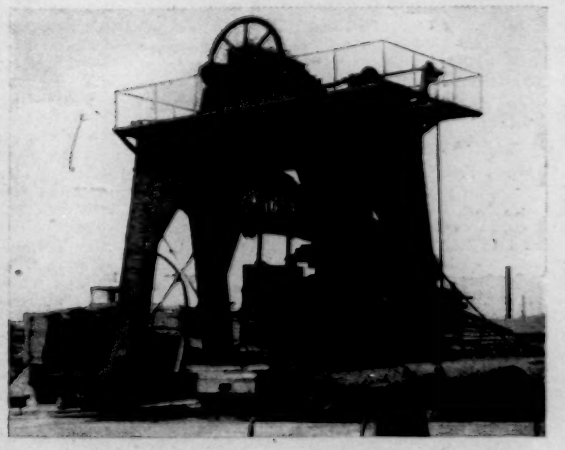
VIEW OF PART OF HEAVY GUN BATTERY, WITH GANTRY CRANE IN FOREGROUND.



12-INCH GUN BEING REMOVED FROM BARGE.



MOUNTING 8-INCH BREECH-LOADING STEEL RIFLE ON PROOF CARRIAGE WITH GANTRY CRANE.



DISMOUNTING 8-INCH GUN FROM BUFFINGTON-CROZIER DISAPPEARING CARRIAGE—FRONT VIEW.

D AT SANDY HOOK, NEW JERSEY.—[See Page 1137.]

to the front, only a few feet in the rear of where the projectile first struck the ground. The shell was found to be cut quite deeply in several places on the cylindrical and on the conoidal portions, as though scraped on pieces of the broken mortar. It may be added that the inventor had not been allowed to straddle the mortar during the firing.

Another important shipment, being the only one of its kind ever crossing the continent, was that recently made from this place, of carriages for the mounting of the 12-inch breech-loading mortars in the fortification at San Francisco Harbor. The largest pieces in these carriages are the upper and lower roller-paths, on which the carriage proper rests. These paths are 14 feet in diameter and weigh about 12 tons each. On account of the length of their diameter it was found necessary that they should be carried in a vertical position. For this purpose the cars had to be especially prepared by cutting away a portion of the floor in the shape of two rectangles of a length a little less than the diameter of the paths, and of a suitable width. Heavy timber supports were then erected upon the floor of the car, fastened together by heavy bolts and tie-rods. The cars were thus able to pass through any bridge or tunnel between New York and San Francisco. Twelve cars, with six carriages thoroughly tested, were shipped in September, 1894, and six months later six more had been shipped at intervals of two months.

Quite as important as the gun is the carriage upon which it is mounted, and as much attention is given to the test of this as to that of the gun. The energy of recoil on firing is very severe, and this requires that the carriage should be so constructed that this energy may be taken up so as not to interfere with the gun or its mounting. This is done by means of springs, by hydraulic or pneumatic cylinders, or by counterweights. If there was no means of abolishing this shock, it would be so great as completely to demolish the gun-carriage and to throw the gun back from sixty to one hundred feet. This has all been overcome by the different means mentioned. In the 3·2 and 3·6 inch guns a spring brake on the wheels of the carriage is used, see the previous page; for the 5 and 7 inch field-carriage the force of recoil is checked by a hydraulic brake which is attached to the platform on which the carriage stands, and this is assisted by a spring device to which the trunnions of the gun are attached. An idea of this may be obtained from the photograph. For the heavier guns, the methods and types of carriages used are more numerous, and a greater variety are being tested, from which to select one for adoption. Of these many carriages the more important are of the disappearing type. The main feature of this carriage is that it is under cover while being loaded, and only exposed during the few moments necessary for fire. By means of counterweights, compressed air, electricity, or by hydraulic means, the gun loaded is raised from behind the parapet into firing position. The severe energy of recoil after fire forces the gun back into loading position; and this energy, being taken up and stored by one of the means mentioned, is utilized to raise the gun again into battery for the next round.

There are three carriages of this type now undergoing test at these grounds, all of American design and manufacture. These are the Buffington-Crozier disappearing carriage, the Gordon counterpoise carriage, and the pneumatic disappearing carriage. None of these carriages has been tested to completion, but in a recent trial with a Gordon carriage for rapidity a record of 32 rounds in one hour was obtained, which is a far better record than has been obtained by any sea-coast carriage in Europe; and in a similar test with a Buffington-Crozier carriage even this record was surpassed by one of 10 rounds in 14 minutes and 42 seconds. It may be added that a still better record will undoubtedly be obtained when these carriages are mounted in battery for use and manipulated by a thoroughly drilled squad of men whose time and work are devoted to study and practice with the style of carriage selected. The best results have undoubtedly been obtained from the Buffington-Crozier carriage. It is the lightest, most easily manipulated, takes up the least space (which is a very important factor), has by far the least mechanism, and is therefore less liable to get out of order, and is entirely manipulated by hand-power. Ten of these carriages are now being manufactured for the government, and will be sent to Sandy Hook for test before being accepted by the government for use. The two carriages from which the records mentioned were obtained are inventions of officers of the United States army.

While these experiments and tests with the guns and their mountings are being carried on, in another part of the grounds we may see huge armor plates being raised into position and mounted for test. These plates are mounted here for two purposes—some to be tested for their strength for use as a defence, while others are used in testing armor and deck piercing projectiles. These projectiles are of the finest quality cast steel, made by secret processes. The cost of the projectiles varies from $400 to $500 each, while the plates cost on an average of from $8000 to $10,000. With the tests thus far made it has been shown that the projectile holds first place, no plate being yet produced able to oppose the projectile without being completely demolished or so severely shattered as to render it useless for defence. These plates vary in thickness from 4½ to 13½ inches, and in many of the tests the projectile, which terminates in a very sharp point, crashes through this mass of steel, and on being recovered is found to be in as good a condition as when first placed in the gun, and after being rebanded, in order that the rifling of the gun may have the required effect, it is again used for test or testing purposes. Of course many other projectiles are tested which are broken into fragments when they strike the plate, while others may be indented or bent but still remain solid.

These steel plates are mounted from 200 to 300 feet in front of the gun, and are supported by a backing of 12 by 12 inch oak timbers held in position by heavy bolts and rods, and this usually backed by a deep mound of sand, which has great resistance. In these tests, where the plate is mounted so near the gun, by the most accurate calculations such a charge of powder is used as will make the projectile strike the plate with the same energy that it would if the plate were mounted at the required range and the full charge used. Care is also taken to have the plate mounted at such an angle as to make the projectile strike it as it would if the plate were at the supposed range.

In all of this work the greatest care and accuracy are observed. After every certain number of rounds the gun is star-gauged, by which means the slightest variation in the calibre of the gun is detected. In this process the diameter of the bore is measured every inch or half-inch from the muzzle to the breech, and the slightest variation, from the 1000th to the 5000th part of an inch, is detected. At every test a record of the direction and velocity of the wind is taken, of the temperature of the air, whether a clear or cloudy day, etc., and in firings for accuracy all this is observed at every round. The slightest change, from the loosening of a screw or the wrenching of the smallest bolt to the complete demolishment of the object tested, is recorded, and after every test or experiment a most precise, accurate, and detailed report of the work is written.

The above gives only a faint idea of the work going on at this place. Besides the experiments and tests taking place with the objects mentioned, others are being made with numberless types of powders, which have to be of different size and form for the different calibre guns, in order to secure the best ballistic results, particular attention being given to the smokeless powders, which have the advantage over others of not hiding the position of the enemy or locating the piece fired.

Experiments are being continually made with high explosives, which are essential in our coast defence. With experiments thus far made it has been proved that there can be fired from our heaviest mortars 100 pounds of emmensite and wet gun-cotton, and, with a fuse attached, this shell may be made to burst at any required point in its course.

Probably some of the most important work is that carried on with the projectiles. Of this piece of ammunition there are three types—the solid shot, the shell for carrying high explosives, and the shrapnel. The shrapnel is also a shell, but instead of carrying an explosive it is filled with lead bullets, and on coming in contact with any object, bursts, scattering the pieces of metal in every direction with great force. For the purpose of carrying on work with this type of projectile, about half a mile from the battery has been erected an explosion-chamber. This structure is 10 feet long, 10 feet high, and 10 feet wide, and made of 12 by 12 inch oak timbers, lined throughout with a double thickness of 1-inch steel plates, and buried in a mound of sand with only small openings in the top for the escape of gas, and one in the side just large enough to admit a person to make examination after an explosion. The shrapnel are placed inside of this chamber, and exploded by means of electricity, by which means also a large part of the firing is done, especially in testing and experimenting with high explosives and obtaining powder pressures.

Range-finders for determining the position of the enemy, together with sights, fuses, and other articles and implements of war, are all being tested and experimented with, and the same care and attention are given to these as to the massive pieces of ordnance. In testing the various designs of sights of foreign and American invention, the work is often conducted at late hours at night, as many of the designs submitted are for night use. A miniature incandescent light is the main feature of this style of sight.

Speaking of incandescent lights brings to mind some important experiments recently made with a large search-light purchased by the government from a firm in Germany. This light is for use on fortifications to detect the approach of naval vessels. The situation of the Hook assisted greatly in carrying out these experiments, as vessels of every description are constantly passing at night as well as during the day. This search-light is the most powerful in the United States, and there are very few, if any, more powerful in the world, the candle-power of this one being very nearly 200,000,000. The light was mounted on a tower about 80 feet high, and could cast its rays over the entire bay of New York. During the test a trial was made of the facility with which a message could be transmitted by long and short flashes. On a building in New York city a message was distinctly and accurately translated, the distance being about twenty miles, and this message could have undoubtedly been translated at a much greater distance. When the rays of this light were thrown upon a boat ten miles distant, it was found that by it a person could distinctly read a book of the finest print. Trials were made of the visibility of fixed objects at known and unknown distances, and of known moving objects, of the detection by search of fixed and moving objects, etc., and it can be said without the slightest hesitation that this light could be seen at sea at distances varying from forty to sixty miles.

The greater part of the work at the proving ground is conducted by army officers under the supervision and command of Captain Frank Heath, who is an expert in all matters pertaining to ordnance and gunnery. Other details of the work are conducted in the same manner, but under the supervision of a board of officers appointed by the Secretary of War, of which board Captain Heath is also a member.

A large substantial building has been erected for the accommodation of officers permanently on duty at this post, together with other officers who are constantly arriving and who remain for a limited time.

Although there are a great many important army stations, such as Frankford Arsenal, Pennsylvania, which produces our ammunition, Watertown Arsenal, Massachusetts, from which place are obtained the gun-carriages and a large part of the projectiles, and Watervliet Arsenal, New York, where the guns are constructed, there is none of more importance than the United States proving-ground, which receives all this ordnance for test, and has the great responsibility of distributing it to the army for use.

Although our army may be small as compared with those of European nations, it may be truly said that the United States has not only supplied her army with material which is equal to that supplied to the armies abroad, but in nearly every instance has far surpassed European countries in its engines and implements of war. These results are largely due to the experiments and tests conducted at the Sandy Hook Proving-Ground.

F. H., Jun.

THE CROPS OF 1895.

The present year will go on record as one of the most remarkable, from the farmers' point of view, in the history of American agriculture. It has been a season of contradictions, and at a cursory glance it would almost seem that like causes have failed to produce like effects. One of the driest years on record, it has proved also one of the most fruitful, although during the growing season there was almost constant apprehension of crop failure. In spite of late frosts and spring freezes, of droughts almost unparalleled in intensity and extent of territory covered, and with unusual visitation from insect enemies, the harvests, with the exception of wheat and cotton, are more abundant than for years.

The area planted to corn last spring, amounting to 81,500,000 acres, was the largest on record. For three years the crops had been small, and prices had suffered less than any other grain in the general depression of values. Low prices for wheat and cotton induced a curtailment of their area, and this land was largely given to corn. In addition to this voluntary increase a considerable acreage of winter-killed wheat was ploughed up in the spring and put in corn. In no State of importance was the acreage smaller than that of the previous year, and the overshadowing importance of the great American crop may be realized when it is remembered that the area devoted to this one crop alone this year amounts to almost one-fourth of the total area of improved land in farms in 1890, while its immensity may be measured by the fact that its acreage equals the combined area of New England, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland, and is greater than the total area of the United Kingdom or Italy or Norway. The season was not entirely favorable, most districts suffering at some period of growth from lack of rainfall, but the average rate of yield for the whole country was higher than in recent years, and the total crop is estimated at 2,272,000,000 bushels, or 160,000,000 larger than any previous crop.

The heavy yield, in spite of adverse conditions, is the result of the unusual care given the crop in the spring, frequent cultivation in a measure making up for the deficient rainfall.

As a natural result of so large a crop prices have steadily declined since the result became assured, and corn is now selling as low as fourteen cents a bushel in Kansas, a figure never before reached under modern conditions. A large amount of capital, both rural and urban, is taking advantage of low prices and is now engaged in cribbing this immense crop, and in all probability the movement during the next five months will be disappointing both to the grain trade and to railway interests expecting a large tonnage in the near future. The large surplus thus taken care of and removed from immediate marketing, however, will tend to depress corn prices for perhaps two years to come, as every market advance will open these cribs, bringing the crop of 1895 into competition with succeeding crops.

The wheat crop was underestimated during the whole growing season. The damage to winter wheat from drought was severe, but the yield of spring wheat in Minnesota and the Dakotas was large enough to make up most of the deficiency. The total crop is estimated at 460,000,000 bushels, sufficient for all domestic requirements, and with the accumulated reserves from old crops enough to supply all probable export demand.

In oats the crop exceeded 900,000,000 bushels, by far the largest ever grown, and the largest small-grain crop ever grown in any country. So far is the crop beyond commercial requirements that the price in Chicago declined from 32 to 18½ cents per bushel, fixing the farm value west of the Mississippi River as low as 11 cents.

For several years farmers have been advised to grow more potatoes. Last spring they listened to this advice from the Secretary of Agriculture and from other less prominent but equally convincing sources, and planted an acreage much larger than usual. The season was favorable in most sections, and the rate of yield, while not the largest on record, was heavy enough with the great acreage to give a product beyond all possible demands for domestic consumption. This excessive production, furnishing a surplus for which there is no adequate outlet, has crushed prices below cost of production in many sections. In the Northwest this is especially true, the ruling prices not paying cost of digging and handling, so that many growers have abandoned the results of their year's work.

The crop is estimated at 282,000,000 bushels, or nearly 60,000,000 bushels in excess of the heaviest crop ever before grown, and the experience of the present year should be sufficient to prevent hereafter the sudden enlargement of any crop until a market for the surplus has been assured.

The fruit crop of the year was phenomenal, especially in view of the frosts in May, after apples and small fruits were in bloom. The apple crop is one of the largest ever grown, a heavy deficiency in New England and a small crop in New York being made up by the heaviest crop on record west of the Allegheny Mountains. The extension of fruit culture in recent years has been rapid, and as new orchards are constantly coming into bearing a liberal supply of fruit for the American table, at moderate prices, is now assured in almost any season.

The yield of all kinds of vegetables was in keeping with the character of the season in other lines of production, assuring abundance and variety as well as low-priced food for all classes.

The following statement shows the acreage and production of the principal and some minor crops of 1895, as estimated by the writer, based upon systematic local returns received during and after the growing season:

	Product.	Acres.
Corn.....bush.	2,272,378,000	81,488,000
Wheat..... "	459,589,000	36,565,000
Oats..... "	904,095,000	30,130,000
Rye..... "	33,707,000	2,414,000
Barley..... "	98,381,000	3,791,000
Potatoes..... "	282,148,000	3,204,000
Flaxseed..... "	15,687,000	578,000
Tobacco..... lbs.	442,585,000	659,073
Broom corn..... "	114,142,500	200,100
Apples..... bbls.	66,256,000	

B. W. Snow.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES.

FIFTH PAPER.—CITY AND COUNTRY.—PART II. LIBERALITY.

BY F. W. HEWES.

THE next question to be answered is, Do city or country communities provide the more liberally for the support of their public schools? It requires only a glance at the columns lettered *e* in illustration No. 2* to see that in all parts of the United States the cities record a larger proportion of total expenditure than of total attendance. Pausing at illustration No. 3 (diagram *e*) to note the comparison of city expenditure to city population, it appears as a noteworthy fact that the several slant lines take exactly the same order as in the attendance comparison just at the left (diagram *d*), and that the two Southern divisions record a remarkably large proportionate expenditure. The figures printed on the incomplete line of the South Atlantic division indicate that its city proportion of total expenditure is more than double its city proportion of total population.

This discovery brings the study to a very interesting point. The best measure for expenditure is attendance; for if attendance is large or small, in order to provide equal educational facilities for those attending, expenditure ought to be large or small in exactly the same ratio. With this fact in view, and coupled with it the fact that the city proportions of expenditure are, in all parts of the United States, larger than the city proportions of attendance (illustration No. 2, *d* and *e*), it appears that cities provide everywhere more liberally for those attending than rural communities do.

This fact is more clearly brought out in illustration No. 8, which compares the proportion of total expenditure with the proportion of total attendance in both city and country. It shows that in the country the proportion of total expenditure is in all cases somewhat less than one hundred per cent. of the proportion of total attendance,

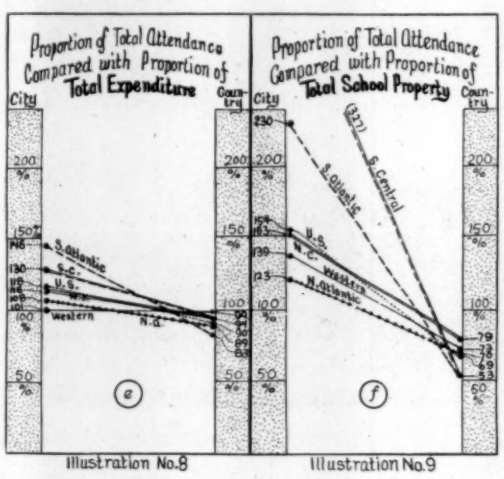


Illustration No. 8

Illustration No. 9

while in the cities it is in all cases more than one hundred per cent., and in the two Southern divisions remarkably greater.

A question naturally arising is, How is this liberal expenditure divided? How much of it goes for teachers' salaries, and how much for sites, buildings, and other permanent property? An examination of diagram *e* in illustration No. 4 shows that the United States slant line indicates a little higher expenditure for tuition in the city than in the country, but not nearly as much higher as is indicated by the United States line in the total expenditure as shown in illustration No. 8. Were the expenditure for tuition proportional to that for school property in city and country, then the city expenditure for tuition should be as much greater proportionally as is the total city expenditure. That it is not, is very evident from a comparison of the two diagrams just referred to. The facts thus shown for the United States as a whole are shown for each division. Even the Western division, which records a much smaller tuition expenditure in cities, shows a somewhat larger total expenditure in cities.

It is therefore impossible to escape the conclusion that the total school expenditure is much more largely distributed to property in the city than in the country. Further evidence on this point appears under the next sub-title, "School Property."

It remains, then, only to ask whether city or country has the advantage in the expenditure for tuition. This question is promptly answered by diagram *e* of illustration No. 4, which shows that, as a whole, the cities' share is to that of the country as 876 to 822. As to the separate divisions, the shares are quickly read from the diagram. The Western division marks a striking contrast to the others by recording a larger expenditure for one day's tuition of one pupil in the country than in the city, while all others record less in the country. The Western division also records almost twice as large expenditure for tuition in its country schools as the other divisions, and about half larger in its city schools.

SCHOOL PROPERTY.—Beginning the study of the value of school property at the same point as the preceding studies, the columns lettered *f* in illustration No. 2 show a larger proportion of city school property than of any other element considered. In fact, the ratio not only largely exceeds the population ratio, it is even more than half of the total property in each division except the North Central.

How much it exceeds the population ratio is vividly shown in diagram *f* of illustration No. 3. The Southern ratios are not only a surprise, but an astonishment. It must be remembered, however, that illustrations 2 and 3 deal with proportions, or ratios, only. Therefore the excessive ratios indicated by the two South lines in diagram *f* do not mean that the total value of school property in the South is large: they mean that the city portion of the total school property in the South is excessive as compared with the city proportion of total population. Conversely they mean that the country portion of school property in the South is very meagre.

Better to compare the proportionate value of school property in city and country illustration No. 9 is provided. This diagram compares the proportion of school property with that of attendance, as illustration No. 8 compares expenditure with attendance. While there is a general resemblance in the two exhibits, it is noticeable that the city ratios are higher and the country ratios lower in the property comparison (illustration No. 9) than in the expenditure comparison (illustration No. 8). This again corroborates previous evidence that in cities property has proportionally the larger share of expenditure. Conversely it shows that in the country tuition has proportionally the larger share, and property the smaller share.

This comparison (illustration No. 9) is the best exponent of the relation between city and country in the proportional values of school property. It shows the ratios to be 154 to 69 in favor of cities, and shows that the schools of the cities of the South are much better provided with school buildings, as compared with their own rural districts, than in either the North or West; that is, in the North and West the property conditions are more nearly balanced between city and country communities than in the South.

This last statement is graphically presented in diagram *f* of illustration No. 4, which compares the average value of school buildings in city and country. It should be understood that the value of school buildings, as given in this comparison, includes the value of school sites, furniture, and all other permanent property. The prominent feature of this exhibit at first view is the great value of school buildings in the West, in both city and country, as compared with the other divisions of the United States. Only those who have seen the fine school buildings of the Western States will readily admit the accuracy of the Commissioner's report in this respect.

A closer study of the diagram, however, fixes upon the relations pointed out by the two Southern lines as being the most striking feature of the exhibit. The average value of a city school building of the West is not quite thirty times that of a country school building, while the value of a city school building of the Southern divisions is about one hundred times that of a country school building. This fact not only calls attention to the very low value of the country school property of the South, already suggested, but corresponds to the excessive comparative ratios of the value of city school property in the South, indicated in diagram *f* of illustration No. 3.

Further light on this comparative property study comes from the attempt to find out why the value of a city school building, with its grounds and furniture, should be even thirty times that of a country school building in the same division. Does a city building accommodate from thirty to one hundred times as many pupils as a country building? The Commissioners' reports give only meagre data concerning sittings in rural districts. It is noted, however, that the number of sittings for each one hundred pupils in attendance is about one hundred and

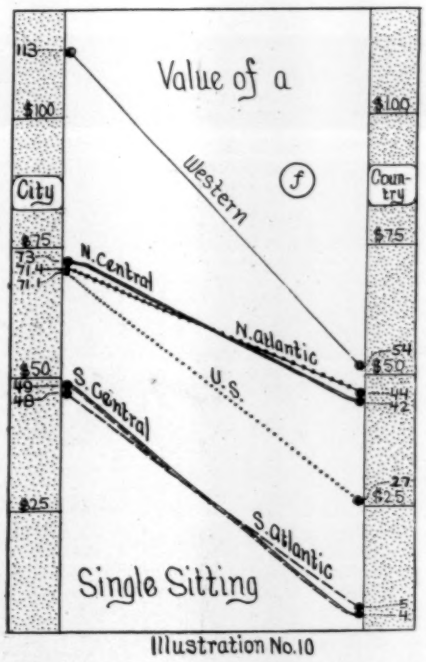


Illustration No. 10

thirty for the cities of the whole country, and the variation from this ratio is not large, although in the cities of the South Atlantic divisions it drops to one hundred and twenty-two.

Rural districts rarely employ more than one teacher to a building, therefore the number of pupils per teacher (diagram *b*, illustration No. 4) furnishes the attendance in the country, from which to compute the average sittings per building. A consideration of the comparative growth of populations in city and country, and of the larger liberality of property expenditure in cities, would seem to indicate that the ratio of sittings to pupils in country

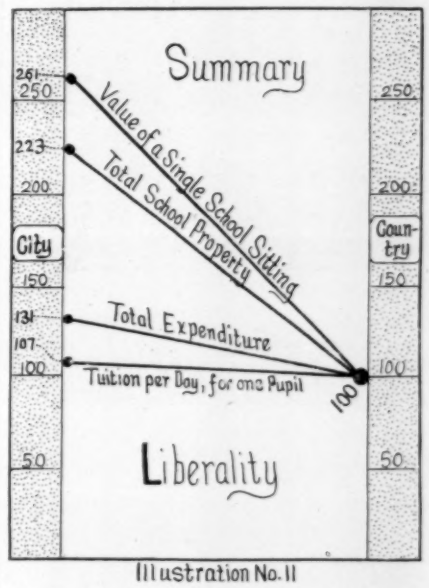


Illustration No. 11

schools does not vary greatly from that in cities. On this basis the average number of seats per building in rural districts of the whole United States is twenty-six, while the average number of sittings in city school buildings is reported as three hundred and forty five, or nearly fourteen times as many. By the same reckoning the city buildings of the West average thirteen times as many and those of the South ten times as many seats as their respective country school buildings; instead of thirty and one hundred times as many.

It is true the value of land is much greater in city than in country, and that fact helps to explain the increased proportionate value, but it is entirely inadequate to account for the enormous difference. It seems very clear, therefore, that what may be termed permanent expenditure very greatly outruns tuition expenditure in cities. Also, that while there is only a slight difference in tuition expenditure between city and country (illustration No. 4, diagram *e*)—except in the Western division, where the country expenditure is higher—there is a great difference in permanent expenditure. This means that in the cities of the West the permanent expenditure has resulted in a property value more than twice as great per sitting as in the country, and about ten times as great in the Southern divisions. These latter relations are graphically presented in illustration No. 10, and again call attention to the remarkable outlay for school property in the West, where it appears that $113 is expended in providing for each sitting in the public-school buildings of cities, and $54 in the rural districts.

Another noteworthy feature of this illustration is that the North Central and North Atlantic divisions range so close together, and finally that it emphasizes anew the meagreness of school accommodations in the rural communities of the South, as heretofore indicated in this paper and in the preceding one on "Expenditure." It would scarcely seem possible to accomplish anything with such limited accommodations as five dollars per sitting could furnish. This, therefore, reflects the more credit on the teachers and other educational workers of the South, that so good work is being done, and that real advancement is being made.

SUMMARY—LIBERALITY.—As to expenditure, illustration No. 8 shows that in comparing total expenditure with attendance (the best measure for expenditure) the cities rank as 118 against 90 in the country, or 131 to 100. The subject, however, divides into expenditure for tuition and that for school property. In both branches the advantage rests with the cities. The relative expenditure for tuition per day for each pupil attending (diagram *e* illustration No. 4) is as 876 to 822, or 107 to 100, in favor the cities.

The relation indicated by the accumulation of property shows the very large advantage of 154 t lustration No. 9), or 223 to 100, in favor of citie cated by the comparison of school property to

The amount expended in providing school tions averages $71 per sitting (illustration N and $27 per sitting in the country, or 261 of property expenditure in cities. Thes sions are graphically presented in ill enable the reader to carry away, " were, a comprehensive condensati discussion.

Great comfort and happiness a humblest cabin, and therefor residence buildings do not greatest enjoyment is. Ye good indicators.

So, in the examinatio isons may well be ta far as possible it wi the buildings and l tered there. Th sideration.

* To study liberality of expenditure on the same plan as that on which attainment was studied, reference must be made to illustrations Nos. 2, 3, and 4, published last week, in the first part of this paper.

As in the case of the illustrations portraying attainment, so in those portraying the liberality of the provision made for attainment, distinguishing marks are employed. As attendance is the ultimate visible attainment, it is the best fundamental of expenditure and property. Its exhibits in illustration No. 2 (the starting-point of all these studies) are therefore marked with a square in addition to the diamond, and the expenditure and property exhibits are each marked with a circle.

NEAR MANDALAY—BURIAL CEREMONY OF A PRIEST.

AROUND THE WORLD

WITH THE TRANSPORTATION COMMISSION OF THE FIELD COLUMBIAN MUSEUM

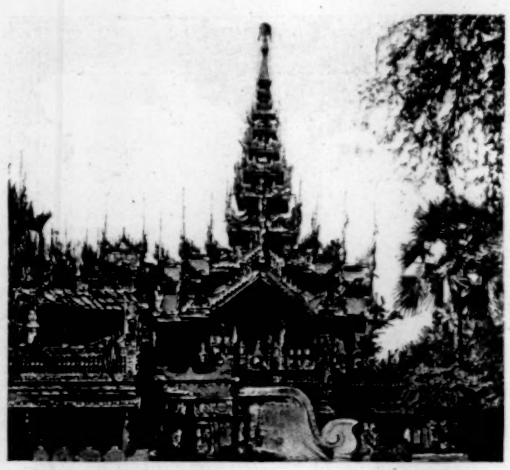
UPPER BURMAH AND MANDALAY.

UPPER Burmah, which since 1887 has been incorporated as a province of British India, was for generations the subject of much distorted and absurd misrepresentation. Like all of the provinces of India beyond the Ganges, it was practically quite unknown to the ancient world, so that while Greeks and Romans and after them Arabian writers threw much light upon the history, institutions, and religion of India to the west of the great river, Burmah, Siam, and the other provinces between India and China remained a favorite territory for the exercise of the fancy of travellers and writers until comparatively recent times. Down to the time of the Burmese war of 1852, indeed, the country, as a whole, was far from being easily accessible to Europeans, and although between the first Burmese war in 1824 and that date there was some trade and a certain amount of more or less friendly intercourse, the country was far from safe for either travellers or residents.

It was always suspected, if not actually known, from ·e time when the English traders began to develop into conquerors of India, that Burmah, both the upper and · provinces, was naturally as rich a country as the ›eninsula of Hindostan itself. Further experience ·ed beyond all question that this is true, the main ·pparently lying in the vastly more dense pop- ·ndia on the western than the eastern side of vhich has led to the development on the resource which nature provided or in- nuity could utilize. In Burmah, on the opulation has at no time been a dense have always been an easy-going and ·nclined to engage in the struggle for ·ady to abandon the struggle for t appearance of its becoming irk- ·l native races of India, indeed, ›eans an unwarlike race, their · supposed to be a corruption ·ified free. More than once roved themselves trouble- t insisted, in 1824, upon India Company by en- ·s the Ganges. brought about, in- last one, in 1887, ·en and almost ridiculous collapse on the part of the native prince—Thebaw—who had insisted upon provoking it. Since the date of the entry into Mandalay and the surrender and deportation of Thebaw the country of upper Burmah has been thrown open, and its resources are now in rapid course of development under British rule. Mandalay itself has turned out to be a little like Timbuctoo and other cities, whose glories owed much to the mystery that surrounded them and the difficulty and danger of making their acquaintance. A closer inspection has shown that the golden-roofed palaces and pagodas of the capital of Burmah were by no means so splendid or costly as had been supposed, being merely covered with a thick coat of gilding. The architecture, too, of the country, although quaint, and to some extent both ingenious and artistic, bears no comparison with that of India. Thus there can be no question that Mandalay is to some extent a failure as a city for the sight-seer. In the first place, it must be remembered that the buildings of Burmah, like those of India, are wholly of wood. The wood used is the teak, a timber more suited than almost any other, indeed, to such purposes, especially in such a climate, where it lasts apparently uninjured for generations. This fact has had much, no doubt, to do with the peculiar character of the native architecture of the country. The ease with which it lent itself to carving rendered light and elaborate carving a leading feature of its ornament, and its comparative instability led to the absence of that grand and ponderous magnificence which is so striking in the temples and palaces of India.

There are not throughout the country, or even in Mandalay itself, any very great number of large or fine buildings of any kind. The much vaunted palace of Thebaw, with its golden roofs and silver audience-chamber, stands to-day a melancholy-looking and confessed fraud, like the wretched and contemptible despot himself. It is now occupied by the administrative offices of the government of the province, and presents a tawdry and even a tumble-down appearance. The gilding has gone from large patches of the roof, which looks dirty and forlorn in consequence, and there is nothing about either the external or interior architecture of the building to redeem it. To us, fresh from the majestic palaces and temples of India, the palace looked poor and contemptible, and even the temple and monastic architecture had a trifling and gingerbread look when compared with the buildings we had so lately admired.

The pagodas and monasteries are, however, both curious and interesting in their own way. Burmah is a country of monasteries. This arises from the fact that the religion is Buddhist, and not, as in India, Hindoo. While Brahmanism in every form and modification is essentially a religion of priesthood and caste, Buddhism is one of contemplation, and its natural development is monasticism. Thus the religion of Burmah is centred in its monasteries, which abound in all parts of the country, but chiefly in the neighborhood of the towns. The buildings, as will be seen from our views of a very characteristic specimen at Saigan, on the Irrawaddy, not far from Mandalay, are quaint rather than imposing. The roofs are their great feature. Broken up into all sorts of curious angles, corners, pinnacles, and curves, they display a wealth of elaborate wood-carving probably unsurpassed in the world. Color, generally heavy gilding, in some instances an inch thick, is liberally used on the roofs, and it must be admitted that it harmonizes well with the soft brown tones of the teak-wood when exposed to the weather. Yellow is the prevailing color everywhere in connection with religion in Burmah, both outside and inside every sacred building; from the yellow robes of the monks to the decorations of the roofs and walls, the sacred color of Buddha is seen everywhere, only relieved by the darkness of the wood-work. Had the same monotony of shade been associated with stone-work, the effect would have been unendurably barbaric, but in connection with the dark timber it is not unpleasant to the eye.



MANDALAY—PORTION OF A MONASTERY.

SAIGAN—CORNER OF A MONASTERY.

Burmah is, like most Eastern countries, the home of very numerous and singular customs. Perhaps none of these are more curious than those that surround funerals, and especially the funerals of persons distinguished by their supposed goodness.

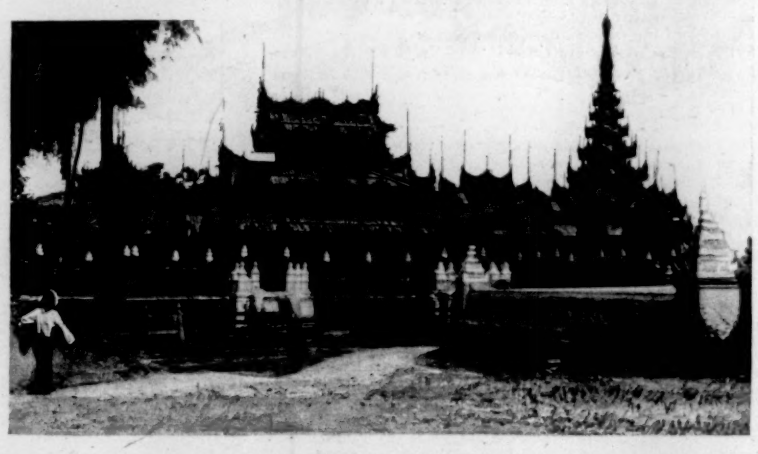
Thus the funeral of any well-known priest or monk becomes in Burmah a scene of almost indescribable noise and merrymaking. The funeral-car is usually a work of somewhat barbaric art, sometimes even, as in the instance of which we obtained a picture, taking the form of a rudely formed wooden elephant, within which the coffin is placed by the bearers.

Ropes are then attached to the car, and its progress to the cemetery becomes one continual struggle between groups of shouting spectators, some of whom pull it onwards and others retard its progress, in a sort of irregular game, which is the occasion of almost unlimited horse-play and shouting.

The car is gradually allowed to proceed, until it at last reaches the middle of the cemetery, where branches of trees and wood and other combustibles are heaped up around it till a funeral pyre is formed. Upon this the assembled crowd adjourns for refreshments, after which the combustible heap is bombarded with wooden cannons, heavily loaded with coarse gunpowder, until some lucky explosion sets fire to the funeral pyre, which is then allowed to burn to ashes, surrounded by the dancing, shouting, and apparently rejoicing crowds. The scene is one of the most characteristic to be seen in the country, giving a singular outlet for that love of fun and rough play which markedly distinguishes the native of Burmah from the people of Hindostan of nearly every race and class.

There can be no doubt that in many respects the British occupation of the country will quickly work a great change in the customs as well as in the condition of the people.

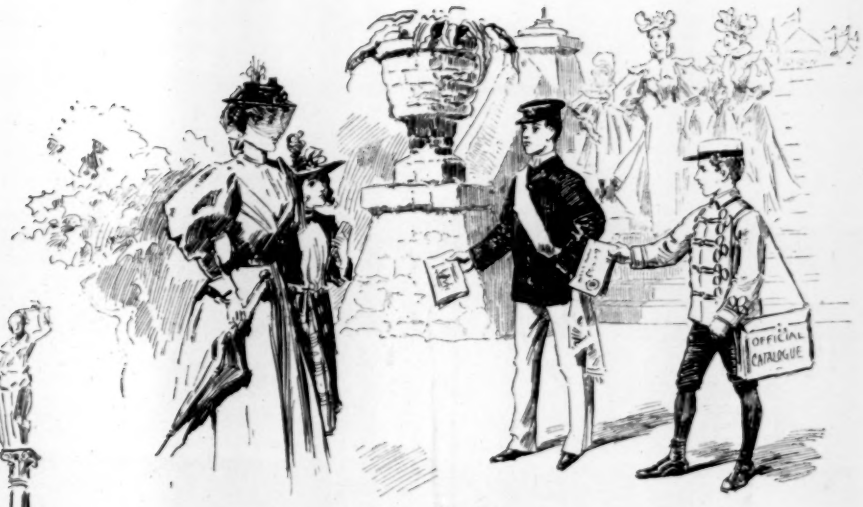
The substitution of equal laws for the old grinding despotism is already largely increasing the popular interest in trade and improvement, and the entire withdrawal of all the government recognition and support from the religious system of Buddhism, with the freedom and encouragement now given to missionary effort and to secular education, can hardly fail to render the Burmah of the next generation a very different country from that of the past or even the present day.



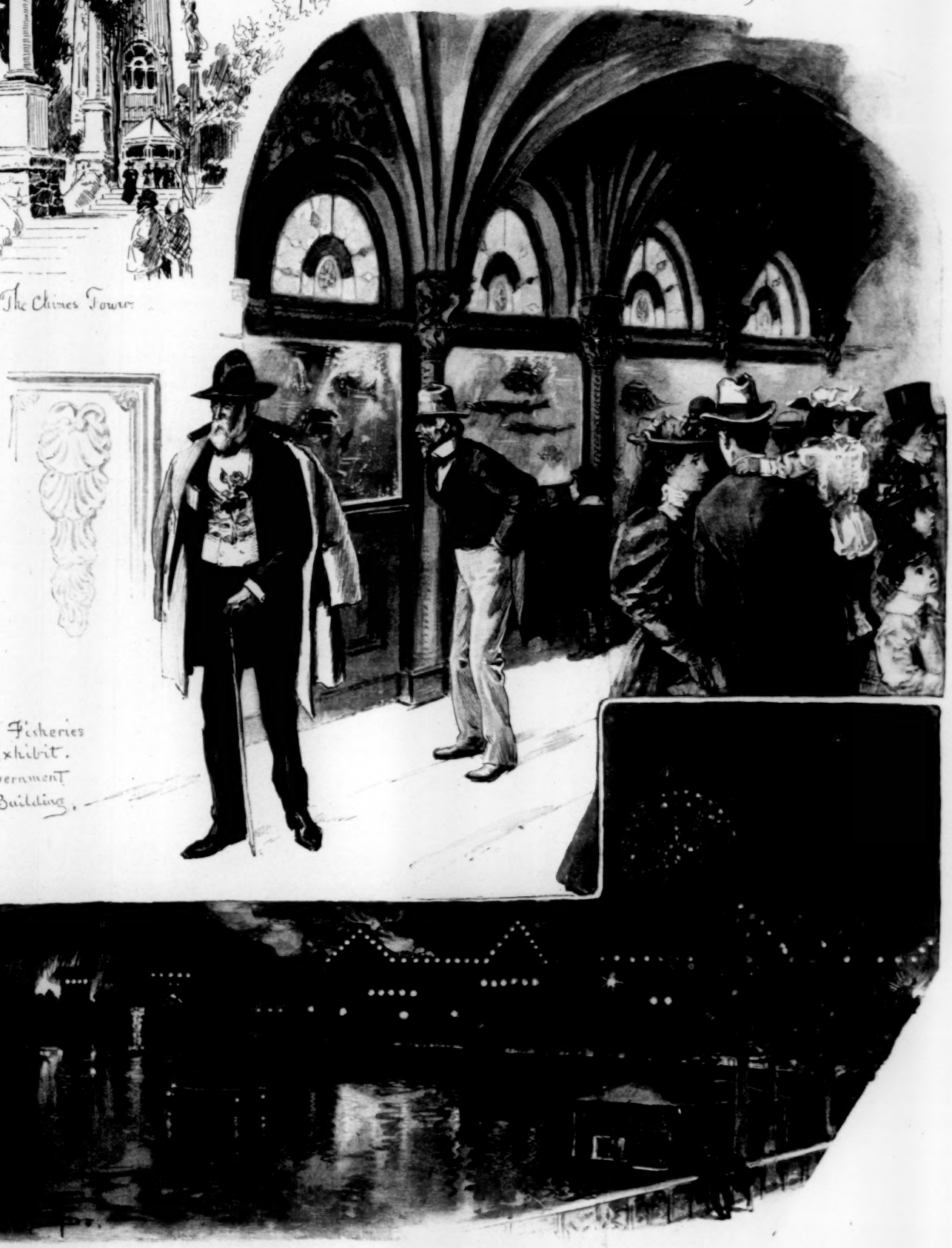
SAIGAN—VIEW OF A MONASTERY.

Photographs by W. H. Jackson.

The Chimes Tower.



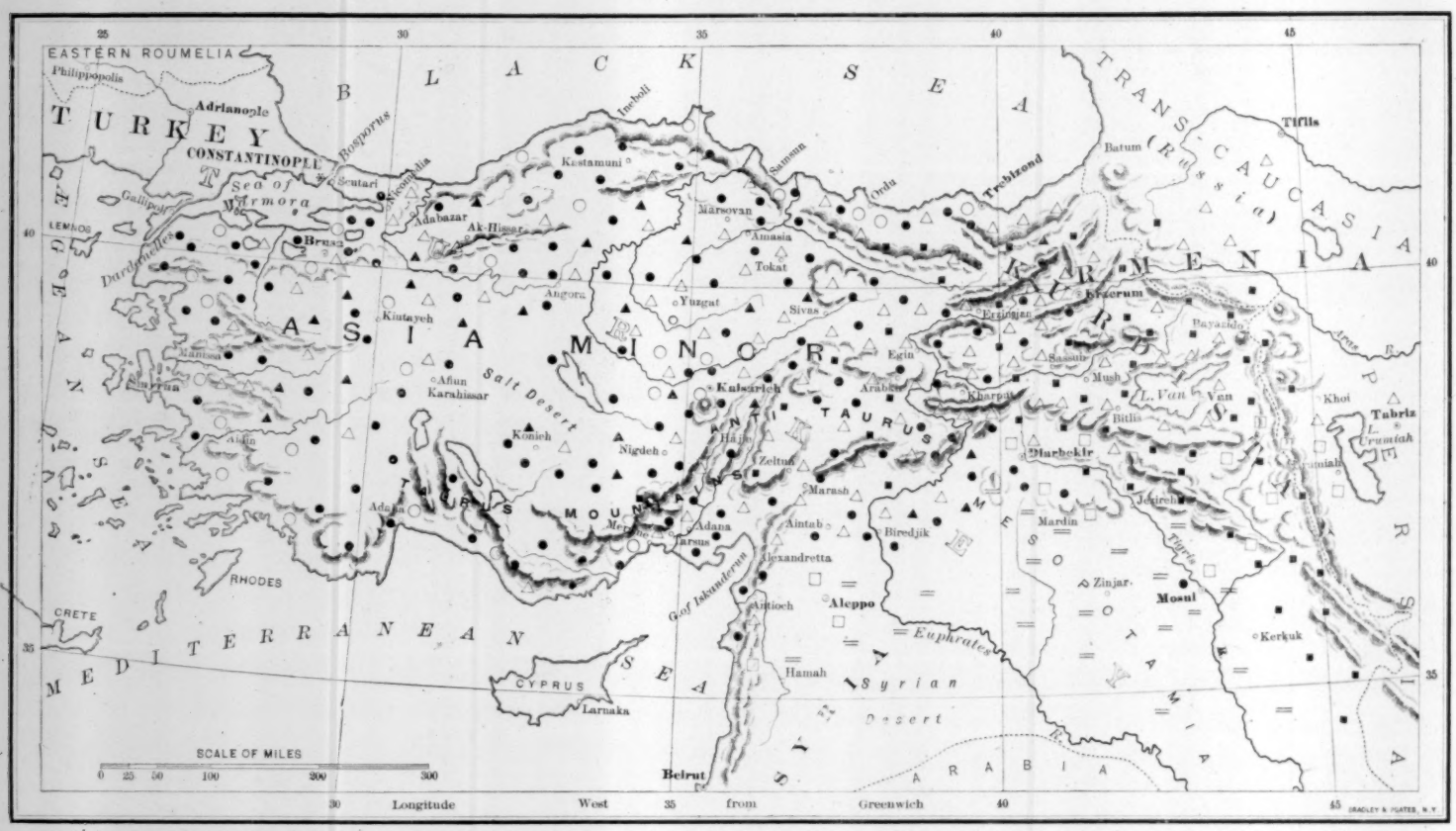
The Catalogue Boys.



The Fisheries Exhibit.

Government Building.

SCENES AT THE COTTON STATES AND INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION, ATLANTA, GEORGIA.—DR



Armenians △, *Greeks* ○, *Other Christians, as Jacobites, Nestorians, Syrians &c.* □, *Turks* ●, *Kurds* ■, *Arabs* =, *Other Moslems, as Circassians, Lazes, Xeibecks &c.* ▲

MAP OF ASIATIC TURKEY, INDICATING THE TOPOGRAPHY AND DISTRIBUTION OF NATIONALITIES.

REFORM OR PARTITION IN TURKEY.

BY EDWIN MUNSELL BLISS.

It has long been a matter of surprise to many that on the one hand the Turkish government has been so defiant in its attitude toward the demands of the European powers, and on the other that those powers have been so slow to take aggressive action in regard to the occupation of Asiatic Turkey. Undoubtedly one great reason has been the mutual jealousy of the powers, making any agreement as to the division of the country, should that be necessitated, very difficult; but it is no less certain that both the topography of the country and the distribution of nationalities have offered serious obstacles to military occupation, thus hampering the powers, and encouraging the Turks in resistance.

Topographically the Asiatic portions of the Turkish Empire may be divided into four sections—Asia Minor, extending from the Ægean to a somewhat irregular line from Samsun on the Black Sea south to Alexandretta; eastern Turkey, extending from Asia Minor to the Persian border, and on the east of the Tigris as far south as Kerkuk; Syria, including the section east of the Mediterranean as far as Aleppo and the Hauran; and Mesopotamia. Asia Minor consists chiefly of a series of high plateaus, about 4000 feet above the level of the sea, separated from each other by rough rather than mountainous sections, and from the sea by mountain ranges, of no very great height, but rugged. Eastern Turkey is entirely mountainous, with numerous valleys, some of which are of considerable extent. Syria is divided by the Lebanon range into the narrow coast line and the Hauran, about the only extended plain being the section known as northern Syria, including the cities of Aleppo, Aintab, and Oorfa. Mesopotamia is pure plain, with less of actual desert than many suppose. With the single exception of what is known as the Salt Desert, in western Asia Minor, the whole country is extremely fertile. The only forests are on the borders of the Black Sea, and in the regions of Bitlis and Marash. There is practically no railroad communication between the coast and the interior. There have been various efforts to develop a system of wagon roads, but they have not been kept in repair, and are in most cases little better—generally worse—than the old caravan paths. From the Black Sea there are only three passes where the roads can be called tolerable—from Ineboli, Samsun, and Trebizond. Throughout eastern Turkey for the most part caravan trails must be relied upon, and passage is very difficult, except in the best weather. In Asia Minor, after the first rough country in the vicinity of the coast is crossed, there are fairly good caravan roads, and the high plateau on which Kaisarieh and Angora are located is comparatively easily crossed in any direction. From the south there is not a single good road across the Taurus, either from the Mediterranean or northern Syria, and but one entrance into northern Syria, and that over a high pass. Across the Lebanon the road to Damascus is the only one available for large bodies of men or extensive traffic. The only harbors are at Smyrna and Constantinople. Alexandretta and Mersine, on the Mediterranean, and Ineboli, Samsun, and Trebizond, on the Black Sea, are open roadsteads.

The towns are mostly located in the plains. They have usually, although not ordinarily surrounded by walls, well-defined limits, beyond which there are no houses. The same is true of the towns and villages. There are practically no isolated country houses, and in Asia Minor there are, between the cities and villages, districts with no dwellings, no cultivation, and little water, furnishing little or nothing for the traveler to pass through it.

The population of Turkey is given in the official Turkish statistics as follows. Turks, 9,000,000; Arabs, 4,000,000; Kurds, 2,500,000; Circassians, Lazes, and various other Moslem tribes, 500,000; Armenians, 1,500,000 to 2,000,000; Greeks, 1,000,000; Jacobites, Maronites, Syrians, and other Christians, 1,500,000; Jews, 500,000; other nationalities, 500,000. All such figures are, however, mere estimates, and rest simply upon the judgment of private individuals, whose practical knowledge of the mode of life of the people enables them to make the estimate with some degree of accuracy. The official estimates are simply worthless. They are based not upon any general census, but upon the tax returns, which are notoriously understated, both by the tax-payers and by the governors and collectors—by the former so as to lighten the burden as much as possible, by the latter so as to give a good margin for private appropriations.

The distribution of the nationalities is indicated in general on the map above. The proportion and character of that distribution, however, can hardly be represented. Armenians are found over almost the entire empire; the Greeks are on the seaboard, and to some degree in central Asia Minor; while Syria and Mesopotamia are occupied chiefly by other religious communities—Jacobites in northern Mesopotamia (Mardin), Syrians in northern Syria (Aleppo) and central Mesopotamia (Mosul), Maronites in Syria, and Nestorians in the mountains from Van to Mosul. Protestants are included in the above, belonging to each of these nationalities. In no one region, however, throughout the empire are the Christians in a majority. Perhaps half a century ago some of the plains were predominantly Armenian, as also the city and district of Van. That situation, however, has greatly changed. Kurds have come down from the mountains and Lazes from the Caucasus, and the Armenians have been forced to retire before them. Numerous villages and possibly a few towns are still distinctively Armenian, but in the main the territory historically known as Armenia and claimed for that race by Mr. Bryce is predominantly Kurdish. The same thing is true throughout Asia Minor, Turks taking the place of Kurds. In the heart of the Taurus Mountains the cities of Zeitun and Hajin are Armenian strongholds. Zeitun has long been noted for the independence of its people, who have only within the last twenty-five years yielded full obedience to the Sultan, and are now the only Armenians in the empire who succeed in making any sort of headway against the Turkish troops. On the plateaus of Asia Minor the Christian population is about equally Armenian and Greek, but both together are outnumbered by the Moslems. Along the Ægean border and as far south as Adalia the Christians are chiefly Greek, and in Bithynia Armenian and Greek, the Moslems, however, always far outnumbering both. In Constantinople, if the population be estimated at 800,000, probably about 500,000 are Turks, 150,000 Armenians, 75,000 Greeks, and the remainder Jews and foreigners.

All the Christian subjects of the Sultan, of whatever nationality or religion, are industrious and peaceful. The Armenian mountaineers of Zeitun, of the Dersim section north of Erzingjan, and of some parts of the Kurdish mountains are the only ones who have at any time during the past century shown any disposition to be troublesome to their rulers or neighbors. In truth, they have been generally charged with cowardice, unwillingness to incur any risk in standing up for their rights, readiness to submit to any extortion rather than oppose injustice.

The Moslem inhabitants of Asiatic Turkey are Turks, Arabs, Kurds, Circassians, Lazes, Avshars, Xeibecks, Turcomans, Tartars, and a number of smaller tribes. The Kurds occupy chiefly the mountainous section of eastern Turkey, but have spread also along the Anti-Taurus and Taurus and the mountains of the Black Sea coast, and are found to a limited degree even as far west as central Asia Minor. The Circassians are the descendants of Schamyl's followers, who, after their expulsion from the Caucasus, were welcomed by the Sultan, and settled in Asia Minor, chiefly in the northern part, from Marsovan to the vicinity of Constantinople. The Lazes are refugees from the Caucasus, and are found in limited numbers along the Black Sea coast. The Xeibecks and Avshars, together with a number of kindred tribes, are probably the descendants of the ancient inhabitants of Asia Minor, and are found chiefly in the mountains along the Ægean and somewhat in the plains from Konieh to Angora. The Turcomans are a tribe of Turks found chiefly on the plains of northern Syria. Mention should also be made of the pagan Yezidees of the Zinjar near Mosul, and Nusairiyeh of northern Syria.

The Turks proper are by far the predominant element in the whole of Asia Minor and in the western portion of eastern Turkey. They are not, however, the pure race some suppose them to be. Probably the most genuine specimen of the original Turk is to be found in western Asia Minor, in the sections about Konieh and Angora. This was the home of the Seljuk dynasty, and their descendants have to a great degree kept themselves distinct from their neighbors, so that there is little of Armenian, Greek, or Circassian blood in their veins. The Ottoman Turks, however, have drawn very largely upon other races for their harems, and have also received considerable accessions both from Christians and Kurds, so that the result is by no means purely Turkish.

In general character the Turkish peasants are peaceable, and ordinarily live on fairly good terms with their Christian neighbors. There remains, however, in them much of the old Turkish fire, and when excited they are arrogant and cruel in the extreme. The Kurds, at least those of northern eastern Turkey, are a brutal, cruel, cowardly race, easily subjugated by any troops showing real power, but overbearing in the extreme toward those whom they think inferior to them in strength. The Circassians and Lazes are brave, but lawless. Their ancestral hatred of Russia they vent to-day upon Christians whenever they can, and as they were invited into Asia Minor for the very purpose of dispossessing the Christians, a mutual hostility and fear have resulted which constantly occasion trouble. The Turcomans are peaceful, but the other Moslem tribes are almost universally of the worst class, dreaded not less by the peaceable Turks than by the Christians.

There are comparatively few foreigners, except in the seaboard cities. There are American missionaries in the interior cities of Brusa, Nicomedia, Adabazar, Marsovan, Sivas, Kaisarieh, Harput, Erzerum, Bitlis, Van, Mardin, Mosul, Aintab, Marash, Latakia, Adana, Tarsus, and Hajin; English missionaries at Antioch; French missionaries at Mardin and Mosul, and a few other places, and merchants of various nationalities in the larger cities.

The bearing of these facts on the various questions involved in the reform of Turkish administration is evident. To speak of an autonomous Armenia is nonsense. A section might be carved out of the eastern part of the empire and called Armenia, but to make it an Armenian principality would require the deportation of Kurds, Turks, and Lazes and the importation of Armenians to an extent which is simply impracticable. Forty years ago it might have been done; now it cannot be. So also to call for reforms for Armenia is absurd. Armenians should be protected wherever they are, but those in Asia Minor need protection just as much as do those in eastern Turkey. Reforms to be worthy of the name should be applied to the administration of the whole empire, and affect Nestorians, Yezidees, and Greeks as well as Armenians and Turks.

Turning to the question of foreign occupation, its difficulty is apparent at a glance. Beyond the seaports and the border cities of Brusa, Manissa, and Adana there is not a single city of importance or section of country the approach to which is not over passes easily defended, even by irregulars, or over rough country which offers almost equal opportunities for resistance. Furthermore, as a result of the oppression of the last five years there

is widespread destitution to such a degree that an occupying army would find it difficult, if not impossible, to secure sustenance. Some aid would undoubtedly be received from the Christian population, but as matters are going now that could not amount to much. There is comparatively little to be feared from the regular Turkish army in its present disorganized condition, but Turkish, Kurdish, and Circassian irregulars might easily carry on a guerilla warfare that would make any complete occupation a long, tedious, and very expensive undertaking. Moreover, the delay would almost inevitably give time and occasion for a general crusade against the Christian population so severe and thorough that when protection became possible there would be no one left to be protected. Were a simultaneous attack in force made on the different sides from Kars, Alexandretta, Smyrna, Nicomedia, and Ineboli, with rapid advance of cavalry and light-armed troops, the Moslems might be overawed, but that is a possibility rather than a probability.

Turning now to the question of partition: It is scarcely possible to divide Asiatic Turkey into more than three sections. Asia Minor and eastern Turkey are practically one; so too are northern Syria and Mesopotamia. Syria proper stands naturally by itself. An arbitrary line might be drawn between each of them, but it would be purely arbitrary and diplomatic, with no characteristics of topography or racial distribution to make it effective. To add either of these large sections to the territory of any one European power would be to give that power a predominance which would be agreeable to few if any of its neighbors.

All these facts are well known to the governments of Europe, as well as to the Sultan and his advisers, and when they are carefully considered they explain very clearly the reason for the delay of the former and the obstinacy of the latter. The time will undoubtedly come when they will be overborne by some imperious necessity. Whether that time has yet come is a question which the boldest of diplomats may well hesitate to answer.

THE PARIS ART SCHOOLS.

MONDAY morning is a busy time in the ateliers. The students arrive fresh and eager after their Sunday's jaunt at Vincennes or St.-Cloud, with a newly stretched canvas or fresh white paper under their arms ready to go to work again. Occasionally there is a new face among them, still sunburnt from the long ocean trip, or perhaps some young Frenchman returning to his studies after his three years' military service, looking strong and hardy after so much drilling and exercising in the open air.

First come, first served, is the students' motto, and on Monday morning the first arrivals put in an appearance as early as seven o'clock, for on Monday they have a new model, and the best places from which to sketch are quickly taken. A few chalk marks on the floor with the initials or name of the student gives him a right to that place for the whole week. Then the model is posed. The *massier*, or monitor, of the class has charge of this. He is usually one of the oldest students, and is elected to this office by his colleagues. He is in charge of the general class funds (for each new-comer has to pay his entrance fee), and he sees to buying such supplies as are needed. Silence reigns for a while as the students set to work. Only the sharpening of charcoal and dauber of brushes is heard, and an occasional "*Sapristi!*" from one end of the room, and "Blame it!" from another.

The first forty-five minutes come to an end; the *massier* calls out "*Repos!*" and the model steps down from the stand. During the rest the boys go around and converse among themselves, criticise the latest art exhibition or the new play at the Odéon, or perhaps discuss where the best meal can be had for the least money, while some modern Little Billee amuses himself sketching his fancies on the wall.

After the fifteen minutes' rest, work is resumed, except perhaps in one part of the room where some exuberant spirit draws the attention of the class to the fact that there is a *nouveau* or new-comer among them. Every one will recall the ceremonies with which Little Billee was admitted by the art students into Carrel's *atelier*. His experience is typical of that which awaits every new art student. It may be suggested that the new-comer test his voice to the edification of his colleagues; and if these are in especially hilarious mood they may even insist upon a character representation in more or less fancy dress or—undress. Or if the *nouveau* be a hapless foreigner, he may be invited to read the *Figaro* criticism of the Salon, while the vagaries of his accent are emphasized by a vigorous chorus of his auditors on every mispronounced word.

Comments on the nouveau are freely made, and discussions arise as to his nationality, his general appearance, etc. He is also promptly informed that the custom to stand treat is still strongly enforced, and he usually hastens to respond to the deafening cries of "*La bienvenue! A boire le nouveau! Nous allons nous régaler!*" for he realizes that life will be intolerable until he pays his score and is accepted as one of the *camarades*.

Soon the rattle of bottles is heard on the stairway, and the *nouveau* and the *garçon* from the neighboring *marchand de vin* come bustling in with bottles and parcels, and in the festivities that follow at the *nouveau's* expense not even the model is forgotten.

When the professor visits the studio he casts a critical look at each drawing, and gives a severe criticism and usually very little encouragement to each pupil. In the case of some of the foreign pupils it often happens that a fellow-student is called upon to translate a disgreeable criticism, which gains a hundredfold in harshness in the rendering from the polite and polished French of the professor into the English of the *rapin*. The American students try to keep the American holidays, and on those days one can hear the studio resound with stanzas from "Hail Columbia" and the "Star-spangled Banner," followed perhaps by the Frenchmen with the "Marseillaise."

THE EAST RIVER AT DAYBREAK.

AN IMPRESSION.

MORN's cold wastes of sky
  Are suddenly flushed with rose
In waving streaks, whose faint flames lie
  In the cloud the fresh wind blows.
The sluggish stream,
  With froth of silver flaked,
Shimmers with tints of a fairy dream,
  For day has waked.

Steeple and high ship-mast
  Are gilded until they blaze.
The sun's bright shafts at last
  Disperse the smoke and the haze;
The stars put out, and the gull
  Floats in the sharp salt gale
O'er the bay, where a gaunt grim hull
  Holds aloft a dull drab sail,
That ripples with day's warm gold
Burning in each gray fold.

R. K. MUNKITTRICK.

AN AWFUL SUFFERER.

IF there is any disease which is awful in its effects upon the sufferer, that disease is Asthma. Suffocating, gasping for air, and sitting up, perhaps for weeks, in an agony of despair, weary, worn, and helpless, such is the life of one who is afflicted with Asthma in the worst form. An explorer on the Congo River, in Darkest Africa, recently discovered a never-failing cure for Asthma in the wonderful Kola Plant. And now all over Europe, physicians are endorsing and prescribing the Kola Plant as the only sure constitutional cure for Asthma. There are seven thousand recorded cures within three months. So sure are the importers of Kola of the fact that it cannot fail to cure, that they are sending out large trial cases free, to any sufferer from Asthma who makes the request. For the benefit of our readers who may be afflicted we cheerfully give the address of the Importing Company who have given this boon to humanity. Address Kola Importing Co., 1164 Broadway, New York, and they will send you a Large Trial Case free, by mail, and prepaid. It costs you nothing and you should surely try it.—[*Adv.*]

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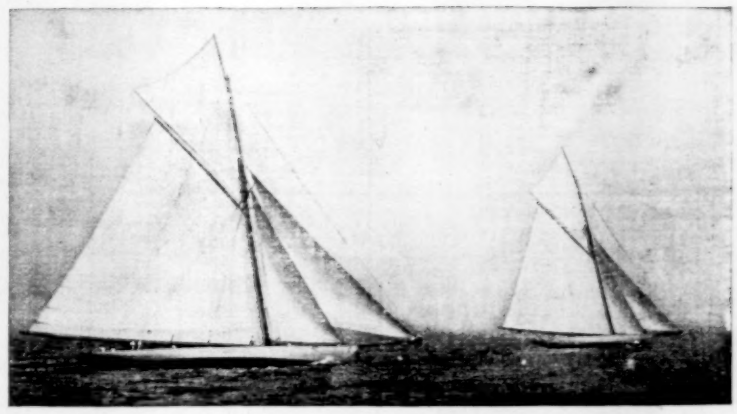

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The Valkyrie has sailed o'er the waters, and failed,
And the sportsmen and crews all the errors bewailed:
The Defender has gained the proud goblet of gold,
  While Vinolia has long held the medal.
As Defender now holds the famed goblet of gold,
  So Vinolia will long hold the medal.

Toilet Vinolia Soap, 35 cents. Floral Vinolia Soap, 20 cents.
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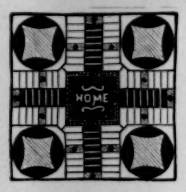

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AROUND THE END BEHIND TWO INTERFERERS.

COACHING GUARDS IN BLOCKING AND GETTING THROUGH.

AWATEVR SPORT

MUCH AS WE SHOULD LIKE to shut out of our columns for evermore further discussion of the slanderous charges brought by Dunraven through *The London Field* against *Defender's* managers and the New York Yacht Club, the intense interest throughout the country demands acquaintance with the development of the American defence. The recognition of that interest must be our excuse for again taking up a subject which has already been thoroughly threshed out, and which ought to have been effectually settled by the New York Yacht Club at its recent meeting.

Following immediately upon the publication of Dunraven's accusations Mr. Iselin sent the following letter to his club:

NEW YORK, *November* 18, 1895.

To the New York Yacht Club:

GENTLEMEN,—I desire to lay before you, for your consideration today, the charges made by Lord Dunraven in his letter to *The London Field*, of which the annexed is a copy.

A careful perusal of this letter will show that Lord Dunraven makes the charge that, after having been measured for the Cup races in September last, the *Defender* was surreptitiously loaded so as to sink her four inches deeper in the water, that she sailed in that condition on the first day's race, and that immediately after that race the ballast so loaded was secretly removed, so that when measured the next day (Sunday) no discrepancy was found to exist between the two measurements. While Lord Dunraven intimates that I was not personally cognizant of the fraud, the charge is none the less explicit.

Now Lord Dunraven is an experienced yachtsman, and when he made this charge he knew perfectly well, as every yachtsman knows, that it was a practical impossibility for such a thing as he charges to have been done on the *Defender* between her measurement on Friday and her sailing on Saturday without being known or made known to me, who, on behalf of the owners of the *Defender* and in the name of the New York Yacht Club, was charged with the sole personal responsibility of managing her during the race. Officers and men to the number of thirty-eight were on board of her all the intervening time, and it is impossible that the fourteen tons of ballast necessary to accomplish the result charged could have been put into her on Friday night and taken out again before Sunday without the fact being known to a large number of witnesses. I was responsible for the proper officering and manning of the yacht. I personally examined the *Defender's* hold and every part of her on the morning of the 7th immediately before the race, and I know the absolute falsity of the imputation.

I consider myself, therefore, as standing before the world solemnly charged by Lord Dunraven with an offence as base as could possibly be imputed to a sportsman and a gentleman, and which I indignantly resent and repel; and, more than that, with having betrayed the confidence of my associates in the ownership of the *Defender*, the trust placed in me by the New York Yacht Club, and the good name of my country, whose reputation for fair play was involved in the contest.

Lord Dunraven claims to have sailed the race on Saturday after being satisfactorily assured that he had been cheated in the fraudulent overloading of the *Defender*. He sailed the next race on the 10th with the same conviction in his mind that on the first day's race he had been cheated. He broke off the last day's race, not upon any such ground, but on the entirely distinct ground that the course would not and could not be kept clear. He went home, and after a silence of more than two months he makes this odious charge in a communication addressed, not to me, nor to the owners of the *Defender*, nor to either the New York Yacht Club or the Royal Yacht Squadron, whom we respectively represented in the races for the *America's* Cup, but to a public newspaper on the other side of the Atlantic, which it would be impossible for me to read or reply to before it had already made a deep impression on the minds of his countrymen.

Relying upon its belief in my integrity, the New York Yacht Club deemed itself justified in placing its honor and that of the country in my hands in the conduct of the race. I could not have imagined that in assuming that trust I should expose myself and you to such gross imputations. But now that they have been made, I place myself in your hands, in order that the club may take such steps as it sees fit, not alone to vindicate the *Defender* and her owners, but also to refute the imputation cast upon the good faith of the club and the country.

I have the honor to remain, Very respectfully yours,

C. OLIVER ISELIN.

Whereupon a special meeting of the club was called, and a committee, composed of William C. Whitney, J. Pierpont Morgan, and George L. Rives, appointed to "investigate" and report. Nothing else was actually done at this special meeting. Dunraven was not expelled. The Royal Yacht Squadron, whom he represented, was not called to account. What the New York Yacht Club did was to put itself and America on the defensive.

WHAT THERE IS TO "INVESTIGATE" I confess I fail to see. Dunraven's suspicions of a changed water-line were not new to the club. Dunraven had uttered them on the evening of the first day's race, and the club "investigated" at that time and remeasured *Defender*, and proved Dunraven's assertions to be calumny. This the investigating committee may learn by re-reading the *America's* Cup Committee report, presented to the club October 24th, and from which I quote:

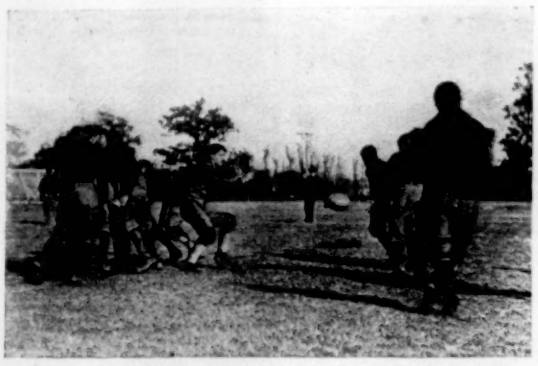
RUSH-LINE BLOCKING FOR AROUND-THE-END PLAY.

"On Saturday, September 7th, Lord Dunraven communicated to the Cup Committee his belief that *Defender* had sailed that day's race immersed three or four inches more than when she was measured.

"Lord Dunraven stated that he believed that the change had been made without the knowledge of *Defender's* owners, but it must be corrected or he would discontinue racing.

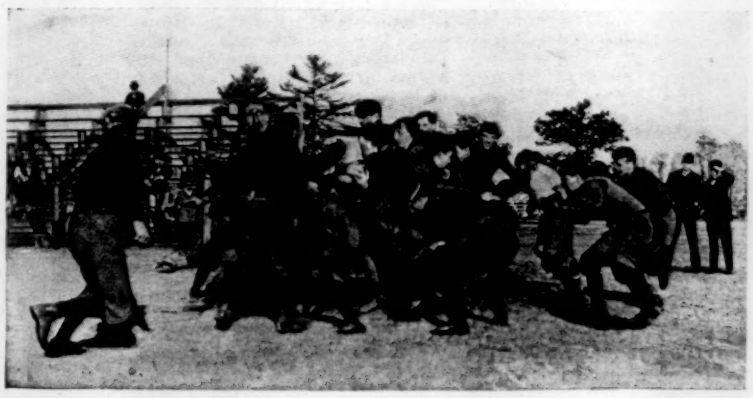
"He did not wish to say to the committee what action it should take, but he desired a remeasurement that day (Saturday, September 7th). The Cup Committee, after considering the communication from Lord Dunraven, ordered a remeasurement to be made at the earliest possible moment.

"On Sunday, September 8th, the yachts were marked as requested by Lord Dunraven. At the same time they were remeasured, with the



TANDEM END INTERFERENCE—ONE MAN STARTING BEFORE THE BALL.

DRILLING INTERFERERS.



BREAKING UP INTERFERENCE ON A PLUNGE THROUGH CENTRE.

CONCENTRATING FORWARDS ON LEFT TACKLE—ONE OF YALE'S SCORING PLAYS.

'VARSITY ELEVENS AT FOOTBALL PRACTICE.

result of only one-eighth of an inch difference in load water-line in case of *Defender* and one-sixteenth of an inch in *Valkyrie*.

"As the result varied the time allowance only a second or two, and in no way affected the outcome of the races, it is not deemed necessary to give additional measurements."

So far as the length of *Defender* is concerned, therefore, there is nothing to investigate; or if there is, the club confessedly repudiates the report of its Cup Committee.

"DEFENDER" HAVING BEEN REMEASURED, and Dunraven's suspicions of increased length disproved at the time of utterance, the Englishman waits until he gets home, and then publicly charges that sufficient ballast was surreptitiously put into *Defender* after her first measurement to sink her four inches, and as surreptitiously taken out again before her second measurement. This question of fraud, then, is the only one for the present committee to "investigate." And the New York Yacht Club, by deigning to even consider its investigation, tacitly assumes that Mr. Iselin would be base enough to incite, or lax enough to tolerate, such an outrage. The action of the club by no means meets the exigencies of the situation. The merest consideration of fraud as possible in *Defender's* management is insulting, the appointment of an investigating committee spiritless. Investigating what, forsooth? That Mr. Iselin attempted to win fraudulently from Dunraven?

Meantime, while this N. Y. Y. C. committee is "investigating." Dunraven continues adding insult to injury, his latest, from the Cardiff dinner, being that—

"The report [of the Cup Committee] said that the vessels had been remeasured and his statement disproved. It was not disproved. It was impossible to disprove it. It was ridiculous to suppose that the measuring twenty-four hours after was the slightest proof."

That, in other words, he still believes *Defender* to have been fraudulently ballasted, and that this fraudulent ballast was taken out of her before the second measurement. And yet in one breath this puling lord claims he has "not made an accusation against anybody," and in the very next declares, as his confirmed conviction, that he has been swindled.

The New York Yacht Club would have resented the attack upon its honor with more dignity by forwarding Dunraven's expulsion, along with a copy of its Cup Committee's report, to the Royal Yacht Squadron.

THE QUALITY OF THE GOLF put up at the Lakewood tournament was of a very mixed description. There was plenty of good golf, and there was plenty of poor golf, and several of the players showed both kinds. Naturally, then, there were some surprises. W. H. Sands, fresh from his brilliant victory at St. Andrews, was a hot favorite at the start, but lost to Park in the first round by a narrow margin. Both men drove in about the same form, but Park's short game was much the better, especially in the putting department. In the afternoon Park fell an easy victim to Jasper Lynch; and here again the putting was largely responsible for the result. A. L. Livermore's play was another combination of brilliant and mediocre work. He won his first match easily, and at the same time tied the record for the links, but in the second round he went down before H. R. Sweeney, of Albany, by four up and two to play. It looked as though Sweeney might be the dark horse of the tournament, but he too succumbed in the finals. Phifer of Lenox and Tyng of Morris County were both out of form, and neither of them reached the third round.

THE FINAL MATCH FOR THE CUP between Jasper Lynch and L. B. Stoddart was finely contested up to the thirteenth hole, when the St. Andrews man "cracked," and Lynch tied the game. Lynch had bad luck with the hazards in his first ground, but clever work with the mashie and good putting pulled him up, and the round ended with Stoddart one up. The first three holes of the second round were halved, both men doing brilliant work and showing excellent judgment. Then came the fatal thirteenth hole. It had been a ding-dong battle, with honors even, and it was clearly evident that nerve was now the most important factor in the game. A shot into the bunker, a bungling attempt to get out with a mashie stroke, and a picked-up ball tell the story for Stoddart. After that it was simply a question of margin, Lynch finally winning by two up and one to play. His victory was well earned by consistent steady play, and fulfilled the promise made in his showing at Knollwood and Morristown. No golfer can play his best game at any and every time, but the closer a man approximates to steadiness the oftener will his name be found among the first three. But if such perfection could be attained, where would be the interest in the game?

THE MEADOW BROOK TOURNAMENT was interesting, although the cards turned in do not show any dangerous approximation to the English record held by Lady Margaret Scott. But then Lady Margaret is an exceptional player, outside of sex distinctions, and could probably give odds to a goodly proportion of masculine golfers. Mrs. Charles S. Brown, in winning by the creditable score of 132 for eighteen holes, justified our confidence of a year's standing in her ability to play winning golf. She golfs in exceptionally good form, driving with a forceful and accurate swing, and showing up particularly well on the green. Miss Sargent, of the Essex County Club, was a close second in 134. Her clubmate, Mrs. W. B. Thomas, played evenly, and her card of 141 stood for very fair golf. Mrs. Shippen was the only one of the Morristown contingent who came anywhere near the leaders; for Miss Ford, who holds the club cup at Morristown, lost her chance in a series of misfortunes at the second hole of the first round. Ten full scores were handed in—a very good field, considering the weather conditions.

THE CORNELL-BROWN GAME, won by the former, 6-4, was certainly the most notable football struggle Percy Field has witnessed, and one of the most interesting games of the closing season. It was a splendid victory for clean playing and an efficiently captained eleven showing a strong defensive game. Brown's interference was greatly superior, and their attack generally stronger and better supported. Individually Cornell's play was remarkable, considering they were meeting heavier and better drilled opponents. Captain Wyckoff not only proved himself a general of no mean ability, but a quarter-back of the first class. His passing is probably not so rapid as Fincke's, but his running, tackling, and kicking combine to make him the first quarter of the season. His short kicks against Brown were invariably timely and effective, and his 85-yard run through the entire Brown team, on a caught punt, the most sensational of the year. Beacham, first as half-back and later as end, was Cornell's next strongest player. He was repeatedly sent into Brown's line, and rarely without gain, and it was he who finally made the touch-down after Wyckoff's great run had carried the ball to Brown's 10-yard line.

Sweetland put up such a game at tackle as he has not shown hitherto; he was down the field on punts, and more than once secured the ball on Brown's fumbles. Schock was unexpectedly strong at centre, and Freeborn, in the second half, and Rogers, at the guards, were largely responsible, in blocking and making holes, for Cornell's gains through Brown's line. Starbuck at half was a valuable ground-gainer.

Brown undoubtedly began the game in confidence, and apparently with good cause, for they forthwith tore great holes in the Cornell line, through which Robinson was sent for gains of from five to ten yards at a time. But Wyckoff's kicking straightway equalized matters, and Brown's fumbles at critical moments, once on Cornell's 8-yard line, threw the balance in Cornell's favor. There is little doubt that Brown would have won only for fumbles, but fumbling is bad football and part of the game, and Cornell deservedly achieved a hard-earned victory. Cornell will make it very interesting for Penn. Thanksgiving.

THE HARVARD-PENNSYLVANIA GAME at Cambridge was exciting from a spectator's point of view, but disappointing judged by football standards. Neither team showed consistent first-class form, the slippery field made fast play impossible, and scoring alternated from side to side, generally on misplays, with U. of P. in the lead, until the latter part of the second half, when Harvard made a splendid hammer-and-tongs attack on the tackles, and pulled up almost even with the winners, finishing a strong aggressor, yet beaten by her earlier mistakes. On the other hand, Pennsylvania, who won 17 to 14, had little but bare victory for self-congratulation. On receiving the kick-off, Brewer punted into one of his own men, and Pennsylvania, securing the ball, was able, after two or three plays, to give Brooke a chance for a goal from the field, which he took most deftly. At this opening everything seemed in University of Pennsylvania's favor; but here she gave way to over-eagerness, and frequent penalization for off-side and Harvard's undiminished determination brought the ball well up toward her goal, and then the unexpected happened. Brooke, misled by long immunity, was a little slow in getting the ball away, and the halves failing to protect him quickly, a punt was blocked, and Harvard scored. Brewer missed the goal.

AFTER THAT BOTH SIDES LAPSED into indifferent play. Pennsylvania fumbled, and Harvard punted badly, and it was only through Brooke's superiority over Brewer that University of Pennsylvania was able to regain the upper hand. Even so, it did not look like ground-gaining for her, but a very dashing piece of work by Gelbert, in the face of new and extraordinary precautions to protect Brewer, brought about another blocked kick, a long run, a touch-down, and a goal. For this Harvard immediately took revenge, gaining another touch-down by line plays, Pennsylvania's over-eagerness, and a short punt by the full-back from the ten-yard line. Brooke tried to avoid a safety, but lost the ball, and Harvard scored. Brewer again failed at goal.

THE SECOND HALF OPENED with U. of P. playing the more aggressive game; and when, after a short attack, another touch-down and goal placed her ahead by 17 to 8, it seemed as if there might be a repetition of the scene at Princeton, for there was no hope for the crimson except in a double score. But now Harvard rose magnificently to the occasion, and for once suiting strategy, tactics, individual dash, and team-work to the necessity, forced Pennsylvania back up the field, and finally, by tandem plays, double passes, and line-bucking, got a chance to work the short full-back kick again, and Cabot being put on side, a third touch-down resulted, and this time a goal was kicked. It was really an admirable exhibition of inherent football strength and spirit, and should do more to encourage Harvard in applying herself to the essentials of the game than any other subordinate success she has had of late years. It is such work in the face of defeat that makes men comprehend how football games are won, and the fact, the mere fact, of the discovery of elastic resources within herself should be accounted of far greater importance by Harvard than the technical success of the particular plays by which this moral victory was gained.

THE "IF'S" OF THIS GAME in their special application may be largely disregarded. It was full of moments when it seemed as if the proper turn of the wheel would have given more or less overwhelming victory to either side, but on striking the balance it becomes simply a case of lost opportunities all around. Pennsylvania can hardly be denied the better generalship and the better comprehension of fundamentals; on the other hand, Harvard undoubtedly showed an individual and, for a time, a team superiority. Pennsylvania will certainly feel that while her men knew the game, they were not on edge; Harvard, that while her men were on edge and imbued with a fierce determination to show themselves capable of playing to the last gasp, they did not know the game. Yet, on the whole, Harvard deserves most credit, for the advance since the Princeton game has been most marked and in the right direction.

Pennsylvania, on the other hand, gave, or was able to give, comparatively little sign of recuperation since the staleness which attacked her in mid-season. The line-up was distressingly slow, the fumbling bad, and the conviction unavoidable that captaincy has handicapped Williams in his position. *Per contra*, Wrightington was capital as a field captain and as a back. Harvard's new line played admirably together, and all the men broke through in good shape. Beale was acceptable, but Brewer's punting trifling. Brooke, on the other hand, kicked magnificently. Holt and Wharton and Dickson and Cabot were most noticeable in the line. In running, the backs were all at a disadvantage; but Wrightington shone as an interferer in Harvard's tandems, and Gelbert worked well and hard for Pennsylvania. The U. of P. line was both over-anxious and unsteady, and could not catch the right moment for breaking through. The Harvard centre and tacklers showed the stronger. Neither side played a game to compare in snappiness with that put up by the Harvard and Pennsylvania Freshmen ten days ago. The game was free of "roughing" from first to last.

THE YALE-PRINCETON GAME in New York was also exciting, and in a way, too, disappointing—disappointing not in the general quality of football, nor in conception of plays, nor in their execution, nor even especially in individual endeavor, despite some unseemly fumbling, but in the prodigal use by Princeton of her greatest strength. Not that the actual result of the struggle could have been changed, for there is no question that the better eleven won, and on its merits, but the score might have been kept to figures more nearly representative of the comparative strength of the two teams. So far as judgment in timeliness of her attack was concerned, Princeton failed as signally against Yale as Harvard had against Princeton two weeks before. Instead of husbanding the strength of the human battering-ram, otherwise known as the revolving tandem, which she had perfected to so high a degree of skill and power, it was set in motion at the centre of the field, even in her own territory, and, as might be expected, had spent much of its force just when and at the place where it should have developed its greatest urgency. With so simple an attack, and withal so effective, it should have been Princeton's game to punt at every opportunity, and not disclose the best of her offence until within striking distance of Yale's goal-line. As it was, Princeton assailed Yale in the middle of the field with the heaviest of her plays, which naturally took most out of her men when there was the least occasion, and gave Yale opportunity to diagnose them, and time to gather in a supreme effort to check them. In other words, Princeton was lavish of the strength of her men, and impolitic in the use of her scoring plays, while Yale nourished the one by kicking, and saved the other until a likelihood of success offered.

NOT THAT PRINCETON IGNORED PUNTING; on the contrary, a record would probably show that the ball was passed back for a kick almost as many times by Princeton as by Yale, but the difference was that whereas Princeton kicked, as a rule, only when she could not otherwise advance the ball, Yale kicked to spare her men the work of rushing. That Yale outkicked Princeton was no reason why the latter should neglect that style of play for rushing, since she could always gain at least as much, if not more, ground with a less expense of effort by punting than by carrying the ball. The point I am making is that Princeton by more kicking would have got as near Yale's goal-line quite as often, probably oftener, and her scoring plays been more effective when she did get there. In one case the sharpness of her attack was dulled; in the other it would have been more intensified.

Yale won because she had more completely mastered the kicking game, was more skilful in its execution, and outgeneralled Princeton from first to last. There was no time when Thorne wasted the strength of his men.

FOR TWENTY MINUTES OF THE HALF the ball travelled up and down the field, with Yale trying the Princeton's line for short gains, but punting on every occasion, while Princeton made good ground through the Yale forwards, and kicked when she had to. Finally the play was in the centre of the field, and Princeton was showing strong offensive work, when Rosengarten, sent into the line, dropped the ball, which, rolling outside the scrimmage, was picked up by Bass, and carried across Princeton's line. After short runs by Princeton, and bad fumbles by Rosengarten and Armstrong, Baird attempted a field goal, which Chadwick blocked, and Princeton secured the ball on Yale's 45-yard line. More rushing by Princeton, the ball lost on holding, and Thorne kicked to Sutor on Princeton's 25-yard line. An exchange of punts, one of Princeton's blocked by Chadwick, miserable judgment and a fumble by Sutor, and the ball was again on Princeton's 25-yard line and in Yale's possession. Thorne's try for field goal failed; Baird's kick-off was returned by Jerrems to Princeton's 25-yard line, where, after Yale had lost it for holding, Baird's blocked punt gave the ball to Yale on Princeton's 15-yard line; and on the first line-up Yale put one of her scoring plays into effect, and Thorne went clean through tackle and guard for a touch-down.

Princeton opened the second half showing magnificent aggression and pluck. Working her revolving tandem on guard, tackle, and around the end, she once carried the ball from her own 40-yard line to within 7 yards of Yale's line, where the latter got it on downs. Thorne kicked to the 40-yard line. Twice Princeton surrendered the ball on downs and Yale kicked, and then Baird punted to Thorne, who caught it in the centre of the field and ran to Princeton's 15-yard line. Again Yale set her offence in motion, and Jerrems went over the line for a touch-down. Lea and Armstrong had been replaced by Thompson and Kelly, when Princeton once more began her splendid but wearing attack. Starting from the centre of the field, she worked the ball without once losing it down and across Yale's line. Three minutes later a blocked kick gave Princeton her second score. Some rushing by Princeton and an exchange of punts gave Yale the ball on Princeton's 45-yard line, from where Thorne made the greatest run I have ever seen, going through the entire Princeton eleven for a touch-down. The score was now 20 to 10. In the remaining five minutes of play neither goal was threatened, the ball going backwards and forwards, and finally being on Yale's 45-yard line at call of time.

THE TWO LINES WERE MUCH MORE EVENLY MATCHED than generally supposed, Yale having made wonderful improvement. Princeton's was, however, a bit the stronger, especially in attack. Individually, Chadwick, Rodgers, Rhoades, and Riggs, until replaced by Wentz, were noticeable during the game, the first-named particularly so. Church and Murphy at tackle, and Gailey and Cross at centre, were about even. Rodgers outplayed Tyler, and Riggs W. R. Cross, while Rhoades and Chadwick both did great work, with honors slightly in favor of the latter. Behind the line Yale outclassed Princeton. At quarter Fincke was flawless, while several plays miscarried through Sutor's fumbles. De Witt and Jerrems played a strong game, though the former did not show so well in rushing as expected, maybe because of Thorne's brilliancy. Thorne is the best all-round back of the year in running, tackling, and punting. For Princeton, Baird, considering his experience, made the best showing. Armstrong was disappointing, Rosengarten was good for short plunges, and attained the unenviable distinction of being the only man this year ruled off for slugging in the big games. Bannard was the most effective back, and Kelly next. The Yale ends in getting down under kicks outclassed Princeton; rarely could a Princeton back run with a caught punt, while Yale almost invariably did so. In getting under kicks Yale also outclassed Princeton, and, in fact, Yale had the kicking game down to a nicety, and won because of skill in that direction.

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